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ABSTRACT

Papers presented at this conference relate to redefining conceptual and program parameters for educating handicapped children and serving handicapped young persons previously unserved or underserved by the public schools. The papers address critical issues, legislation and litigation, program implications, and program practices. (Author/MLF)

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The Right to an Education Mandate

Implications for Special Education Leadership Personnel

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Table of Contents iii
Acknowledgments 1
Preface 3

Volume III
The Right to an Education Mandate

Part I. Critical Issues 5

Educating All Handicapped Children – Critical Issues and Problems
Duane J. Matthies 7
A Basic Kit to Confront the Human Disposal Authority, Department of Subnormal Affairs of the Monolith, in This Land of Opportunity
Burton Blatt 15
Safeguarding the Rights and Welfare of Students in the Implementation of Recent Mandates
Wolf Wolfensberger 49

Part II. Legislation and Litigation 67

Recent Development in the Courts
Alan Abeson 69
Recent Legislative Developments
Fred Wientraub 81

Part III. Implications for Programs 91

The Right to Education Mandate: Implications for Training
Maynard R. Reynolds 93
Right to an Education Mandate: Impact on University Training Programs
Jerry Chaffin 121
National Leadership Efforts Bearing Upon Right to Education
James R. Yates 126
Right to an Education Mandate: Impact on Professional Standards
William E. Johnson 133

Part IV. Programs and Practices 143

The Armatage Learning Center: A Special Public School for Severely Learning-Disabled Youth
Marie Blackburn and Priscilla Spencer 145
The UNISTAPS Project: A Family Oriented Infant/Preschool Program for Hearing Impaired Children, 0-4, and Their Parents
Winifred H. Northcott and Jayne V. Nelson 161
Emerson School and Sheltering Arms Program for Severely Retarded
Harriet E. Blodgett and S. Sajjad Haider 177
Day Care Training Program for the Severely Multiple Impaired Beekman Center – Lansing, Michigan
David L. Haarer and Fred B. McGlone, III 189
Advocating for Youth in Minneapolis Public Schools: The Youth Advocate Corp
Ida-Lorraine Wilderson and Keith Kromer 198
Performance-Based Training for Teachers of Moderately and Severely Retarded (TMR) Pupils
E. Shaw Waltz and John E. Rynders 211

Part V. Reaction to Papers 229

A Mosquito in a Nudist Colony: Reaction to Papers
Melton C. Martinson 231

1973 Conference Staff 241

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We are grateful to Dr. Donn Hoffman for serving as liaison with the many contributors to this volume.

We wish also to acknowledge the support of our secretarial and clerical personnel who have assisted in the production of this document, especially Mrs. Betty Lang who acted as conference secretary.

Once again, we are indebted to the Minneapolis Association for Children with Learning Disabilities whose members provided registration assistance and information to conference participants.

PREFACE

This book contains the proceedings of the third Annual Invitational Special Education Leadership Conference. This conference, sponsored by the Special Education Division of the Minneapolis Public Schools, was held in November 1973 in Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Co-chairmen for this conference were Dr. Richard Johnson, Minneapolis Director of Special Education, and Dr. Jerry Gross, Assistant Director. Dr. Richard Weatherman, Associate Professor of Special Education and Administration at the University of Minnesota, served as Conference Coordinator.

The purpose of these annual leadership conferences is to establish a continuing forum to stimulate open dialogue among special education leadership personnel from the public schools, university training programs, and state education agencies.

The central theme of this conference was **The Right to an Education Mandate** for handicapped children. Primary focus was placed on issues, policies, and practices related to redefining our conceptual and program parameters, and to the opportunity of serving handicapped young persons previously **unserved** or **under-served** by the public schools. Leadership personnel from the schools, from training programs, from State and Federal agencies, and from consumer groups have joint responsibility for developing programs capable of serving all the handicapped, and all of these groups were represented by conference faculty and participants.

This volume, volume III of the **Leadership Series in Special Education**, represents the collected papers of conference faculty and contains contributions which address critical issues, legislation and litigation, program implications, and program practices.

part I

critical issues

EDUCATING ALL HANDICAPPED CHILDREN – CRITICAL ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

Duane J. Matthies
Deputy Commissioner for School Systems
United States Office of Education

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the changing Federal role and relationships with State and local education agencies which may emerge from Congress at this session.

I would classify this as an encouraging report, on the basis of preliminary actions taken to extend and amend the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. We are optimistic that Congress will take significant steps this year to simplify the complex structure of Federal aid and to give State and local agencies new flexibility and responsibility to deal with their own educational problems and priorities. If these steps are taken, the Administration will have accomplished the major goals we sought in our own proposals.

The prospects are good, therefore, that the long stalemate between the Congress and the Administration over the funding of education programs may be broken. If Congress builds sufficient program consolidation into the legislation extending ESEA, we are prepared to request that the affected elementary and secondary programs be funded a year in advance, with substantially higher appropriations. These additional dollars always seem to be welcome and should alleviate some of the horrendous hiring and personnel problems of the past caused by late funding, continuing resolutions, etc.

We are prepared to make this commitment because we feel that a redirection of the Federal role in elementary and secondary education is vitally necessary to strengthen State and local control. This historic principle has been eroded in recent years by the gradual proliferation of narrow-purpose categorical Federal aid programs.

The categorical approach dates back to 1917 and the Vocational Education Act, but it was not until 1958 that the National Defense Education Act established the present pattern for Federal aid to education. In response to identified needs, the NDEA established a series of programs aimed at improving education in science, mathematics, and foreign languages and training more young people in fields considered vital to the national defense. In subsequent years, a further range of national needs were identified, and Congress passed in rapid succession, a series of laws providing special help for the disadvantaged, for the handicapped, to train more teachers, to modernize vocational and technical education, and to provide more books, equipment, and technology.

There is no question that these programs have had an enormous and beneficial impact on American education. The question is, how long can we continue to add more categories to the existing complex structure? The U. S. Office of Education already administers more than 100 categorical programs affecting elementary and secondary education, vocational education, and post-secondary education. Some of the programs affect each of these major areas at the same time. To complicate the picture further, at least 26 other Federal agencies also administer significant categorical programs affecting the schools and colleges.

The problems created by this proliferation of programs are best known to school officials at the local level, to people like yourselves – personnel administrators who must recruit and hire individuals for these programs – and then monitor them to make sure they work in the area and with the students called for in the particular program in order to avoid an audit exception. In theory, each categorical program offers potentially significant support for a local school system. Unfortunately, however, each categorical program requires a separate application – often to separate bureaus of the Office of Education. In most cases, interim approval at the State level is necessary. Some programs require matching funds. Some only ask an acceptable project proposal for approval: others approve projects on a highly competitive basis. And each categorical program has its own complicated set of regulations, guidelines, and reporting requirements.

These requirements make it difficult for even the most affluent and best-staffed school district to put together a coherent package of Federal assistance. For smaller, poorer systems, the task is impossible. Just keeping informed of the array of programs available, how to apply for them, when, and where is beyond the capacity of any local school superintendent unless he has professional assistance.

The categorical approach to Federal aid also causes increasing problems at the State level, where the required paperwork is staggering. A typical State plan for a single formula grant program is many pages in length and takes hundreds of man-hours to prepare. States often establish separate units to do this work, because of complex requirements for individual auditing and reporting. These units and their personnel are counterparts or reproductions on a smaller scale of the units that administer the programs in the Office of Education. They frequently work more closely with OE than with their own agencies, managing their Federal funds in isolation from State resources that are available for the same purposes; they are isolated too, from other Federally-assisted programs. This fragmentation, of course, only diminishes the possibility of comprehensive, coordinated planning at the State level.

Some of the problems resulting from the proliferation of categorical programs may seem ludicrous, but they are very real to State and local officials. In one State Department of Education, it was discovered that an employee received 17 checks each payday, because his time was apportioned among 17 Federally-funded programs, and, for some peculiar bookkeeping/accounting reason, was given a separate check for each program slice of his time. The monitoring procedures necessary to assure that personnel and equipment charged to one program are not used for other purposes may make it impossible for a secretary working for one program to use a typewriter purchased for another; or a bookkeeping machine purchased with categorical funds may remain idle while other non-Federal units of the same office are using hand ledgers.

The proliferation of categorical programs also creates problems at the Federal level. The paper generated at the local and State level flows into the Office of Education, where a great deal of manpower is assigned to reviewing reports, records, and plans. Most of this work is essentially sterile; a matter of checking to see that all is in order, adding little or nothing to the content of the paper, serving mainly to shuffle it from desk to desk and contribute to a cumulative delay in processing. The information contained in these documents is often of little actual value; a pedestrian collection of routine program descriptions, assurances that Federal requirements are met. The time required to shuffle these documents reduces the amount of time and manpower which the Office of Education might otherwise devote to worthwhile technical assistance to States and local educational agencies, just as the time preparing them reduces the capacity of State officials to contribute to statewide planning efforts or to work productively with local school authorities to improve educational programs.

Once again, I would like to make clear that I am not criticizing individual categorical programs. The bulk of them have been notably successful in achieving their original purpose of stimulating new efforts to meet special educational needs. I assume that there will always be a need for some categorical programs; there will always be areas where Federal support is deemed in the national interest, and new areas of need are constantly emerging which require special stimulation.

The point is that categorical programs cannot be permitted to grow indefinitely. Once special needs have been recognized at the State and local level, there is no reason for the Congress of the United States continuing to sit as a national school board, telling states and communities what they should spend and how. Such programs should be replaced by broader forms of Federal aid which encourage states and localities to find their own means of achieving national objectives without detailed guidelines and regulations which assume that Washington knows best how to deal with problems which (it should be apparent) must differ in degree and intensity from state to state, district to district, and even from school to school.

The point is that if categorical Federal aid continues to proliferate, it will become more and more difficult for the fifty states to plan and operate effective programs tailored to their own educational needs and problems. There is no doubt that the states need Federal help. There is no doubt that states must work together to achieve certain broad national educational objectives. But the present categorical aid structure actually discourages states from using Federal money where it is needed most. It encourages duplication of effort and expenditures, as well as mounting waste in the continuation of popular programs which have served their purpose. It tends to distort State and local educational priorities and to shortchange other areas of need, particularly in the case of programs which require matching funds.

After 15 years of growth in the number, complexity, and rigidity of Federal programs, guidelines, and regulations, it is time to reverse the trend. It is time to reduce the number of categories, regulations, and guidelines; time to broaden and consolidate existing programs; time to place greater responsibility on states and local districts to deal with their educational problems in ways which seem best to them.

That is what this Administration seeks to accomplish. That is why we proposed, in the Better Schools Act, to replace over 30 existing Federal formula grant programs with a single program which would automatically distribute funds to the states by formula, to be used for five broad national purposes: the education of the disadvantaged, the handicapped, vocational education, assistance for schools in Federally-affected areas, and supporting services.

In the case of the disadvantaged and Federally-connected pupils whose parents live on Federal property, funds would pass directly through to the local educational agencies as a matter of right. The rest of the money would go to the states for distribution to local school districts according to their relative need for vocational education, education of the handicapped, and supporting services. The distribution formula would be specified in a comprehensive State plan, developed as a result of broad public debate within the State. Federal approval of the plan would not be required; thus, the ways funds would be used within each national purpose area would be determined within the State (subject to minimal necessary Federal requirements to assure that the purposes authorized are being served). Current funding uncertainties would be ended and careful planning would be facilitated because the Federal appropriation would come in a lump sum, one year in advance, instead of in 30 separate allocations. State and local administrative costs would be reduced because much of the tedious and expensive grant application process would be eliminated.

This proposal has been before the Congress for two years without action. In recent weeks, however, there have been encouraging signs of support for the concepts embodied in the Better Schools Act – if not for the bill itself. H. R. 69, reported out of the House General Education Subcommittee in July, would accomplish significant consolidation while extending most of the authorities of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Eight separate programs would be folded into broad-purpose grants for support services and educational innovation.

While H. R. 69 needs further improvement, it already represents a major step toward an acceptable compromise; that is, a bill which achieves the Administration's objectives of streamlining the existing structure of categorical grants and freeing State and local school systems to decide how to deal with their own educational problems, without unnecessary direction from a distant Federal bureaucracy.

As the President declared in his September 10 message to Congress, these principles of grant consolidation "are more important than the question of how the bill is titled or who gets the credit." At his direction, we are working closely with the Congress and the major education associations to accomplish these goals.

I must emphasize the importance of these efforts to all of us in the field of education. If an acceptable proposal can be developed – and we believe it can before this session of Congress adjourns – this Administration would be prepared to seek advance funding of elementary and secondary programs, at substantially increased levels. We made this commitment very specific in a letter to Chairman Perkins September 19. Under Secretary of HEW Frank Carlucci wrote that, if appropriate changes are made in H. R. 69, we would be prepared not only to support the legislation, but to "seek appropriations to forward fund the elementary and secondary education programs affected, at a level $540 million higher than we originally proposed for FY 1974. Such funding would take effect in FY 1975, for the 1974-75 school year." In other words, the possibility arises that working together, we can break the long deadlock over appropriations, end the uncertainty and confusion, and bring stability to Federal funding at higher levels of support, all at the same time!

Relationships With State and Local Agencies

Not only in our legislative recommendations for grants consolidation, but also in our administration of existing programs we are seeking to build more effective relationships with State and local agencies. It is our conviction that State and local officials are in a better position to understand local needs and priorities than distant bureaucrats in Washington. That is why it is our policy to increase the amount of State and local decision-making in the use of Federal education funds, and to make Federal assistance more responsive to local, State and regional needs and differences.

In keeping with this policy the Office of Education is planning to decentralize all appropriate programs, delegating authority to field officials in each of our 10 regional offices so that they can act more promptly and effectively in dealing with the program constituencies which are geographically closest and best known to them.

Moving Federal programs closer to the people they serve has been a major goal of this Administration since early 1969 when the President ordered an interdepartmental review of relationships between headquarters and field offices, explaining: "decentralized decision-making will make for better and quicker decisions – it will also increase cooperation and coordination between the Federal government on the one hand and the states and localities on the other."

It might be expected that these objectives would be warmly endorsed by State and local education officials. Only last week, however, a prohibition against decentralization of education programs was written into our FY 74 appropriation bill in the Senate, largely due to the opposition of two national organizations representing educational constituencies. We feel that this was a serious disservice to education, and based largely on misunderstanding of what our decentralization plans would entail.

The arguments made against decentralization are (1) that it would infringe on the powers and responsibilities of State and local education officials; (2) that it would insert another layer of bureaucracy, raising the possibility of different policies in different regions; and (3) that it would make it difficult for the Commissioner to be called to account for the management of programs. Each of these criticisms is unfounded. First, decentralization in no way limits the authority of State and local officials; it simply involves a delegation of powers already vested in the Secretary of HEW and the Commissioner to their representatives in the field, so that their Federal responsibilities can be carried out more effectively.

On the second point, full authority will be placed in the regional offices to make administrative decisions, just as program officers of centralized programs currently make such decisions. This will cause no additional layering of the bureaucracy, because the regional offices are already there. Rather, we anticipate a significant decrease in the problems bucked from the regional offices to Washington. We also expect an increase in the ability of program officers to assist and respond to constituents, because of their proximity and the limiting of their geographic area of concern from the entire nation to a single region. As national policy matters have always been and will continue to be a headquarters' responsibility, we do not expect nor will we allow regions to develop different policies for the same programs.

On the third point, there will be no diminution of the Commissioner's accountability and responsibility for administration of Office of Education programs. All regional OE employees will still report to the Commissioner and be responsible to him for their own duties. At the same time they will have increased authority to administer policy and will participate in the policymaking process with headquarters' personnel. Federal decentralization has much of the same rationale to it that is present in plans of many large school districts to decentralize much of their activity.

Critics of decentralization have also questioned whether our objectives of grants consolidation and decentralization are consistent or compatible. Let me assure you that we see both as being wholly consistent and mutually supportive. Both are based on the premise that locally-based officials are in a better position to administer Federal resources than Washington-based bureaucrats.

Grants consolidation would place the responsibility for applying Federal resources largely on State and local officials, while relieving them of their present burden of red tape. Decentralization will place the administration of programs which remain a Federal responsibility in the hands of field representatives who are closer to the State and local situation.

In short, we seek to simplify the complex structure of Federal aid and to establish sounder relationships between Federal, State, and local government agencies. With public and professional understanding and support, we hope to achieve both objectives in the months ahead.

A BASIC KIT TO CONFRONT THE HUMAN DISPOSAL AUTHORITY, DEPARTMENT OF SUBNORMAL AFFAIRS OF THE MONOLITH, IN THIS LAND OF OPPORTUNITY*

Burton Blatt
Centennial Professor and Director
Division of Special Education and Rehabilitation
Syracuse University

Overview

I began teaching in 1949 and soon after embarked upon a career with the so-called mentally retarded. In the subsequent years, I learned that:

1. People, traditionally, underestimate their potentials for changing or, to use a more common term, for learning.

2. Our pessimism concerning the conditions of change become a self-fulfilling prophecy. We don't learn when we become convinced that we can't or when we become convinced that we shouldn't.

3. Given proper conditions, it can be demonstrated that intelligence is plastic, i.e., intelligence is a function of practice and training. That we have not been able to accomplish such change in people is, I believe, less a defect of this hypothesis than it is of our practice.

4. I believe in a design of things. And, I believe, the design for all of us holds nothing but good.

But, as I once remarked in an address before the Massachusetts Legislature, there is a dark side of every mirror, a side beyond inspection because it is without thoughtfulness (Blatt, 1970). And while the optimism and pride of our lives is for the gains made in civil rights, for our few achievements in mental retardation, for the concept of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, surely a dark side in the evolution of our civilization in this mid-20th Century must be reserved for the deep unremitting, unrewarding lives of drudgery and pain we inflict upon our institutionalized brothers and all others who are needlessly segregated.

I said to that Legislature, and I believe even more firmly today,

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**The author is grateful to Frank Garfunkel, Richard Hungerford, Seymour Sarason, and Thomas Szasz whose generosity contributed greatly to the development of the ideas embedded in this paper.*

that NO RESIDENT of a state school needs to live in a denuded condition, needs to be a head banger, or needs to be locked in solitary confinement. Practically every resident can be taught to eat meals independently, can be taught to live among his fellows without being of danger to himself or to others, and without the use of physical restraints. All building odors can be eliminated without the need for even more repugnant chemical treatments or electronic gadgetry that mask the sources of these odors but do not eliminate the causes: filth and neglect. I even have some evidence that intelligence is educable; people can change – learn – and this concept applies both to the retarded and those who minister to their needs. It applies to us too! We can change in our conception of human potential and, thus, we can promote change in others and, ultimately, we can create a society that does not need closed institutions. The lives of Anne Sullivan and Helen Keller speak volumes about this concept, as do the lives of Jean Itard and Victor, the Wild Boy of Aveyron.

First, the Monolith of mental health; now, the Monolithic educational establishment! Many in our field identify the Monolith as the special class, the segregated curriculum, or the institution. True, yet not true! Certainly, one side of the disability Monolith is the educational establishment, as the other side is the mental health establishment. But the Monolith is not the teachers' college, not even the special class, the segregated curriculum, or the institution. The Monolith is created and sustains itself from a near-absence of **alternatives**. That is what the literal meaning of the word suggests. The education Monolith involves a network of seemingly open, but closed, systems that are not systems but integral parts of The System. The mental health/mental retardation Monolith is not the institution, but the fact that there are no viable alternatives to the institution. The disability Monolith – traditional special education and traditional mental health – is the one-way narrow total environment, planned and implemented by the city, the state, the institution, the school. Further, the problem is not with officialdom's good intentions but with a limited vision of human potential and what the world may yet become.

What are the consequences of such unitary approaches? What results from a system that has forgotten the difference between special education and special class? What is the price society must pay for a contemporary system that has too little vision and a fragile optimism, where one's hope is to expect a future that is little more than a larger mass of the past? In that culture, to know where one is going will require, merely, to look back in anguish. In that culture, Man would not learn from history; he would relive it and relive it again. It may be that such a culture is required, not only to produce but to sustain policies supposedly on behalf of children with special needs that, in reality, deprive them of basic developmental opportunities. Some may claim we, in this age, are products of that culture.

And what is the promise that special education was to keep? We have been faithful, we have supported humanistic precepts and philosophies, we have believed that there is "enrichment through difference." The promise of special education has always been, and remains today, not a special curriculum, or special methods, or even special teachers. The promise, the gifts that this movement was to endow us with, were the gifts of optimism and belief in the human ethos, charity and love for our brothers, a concept that all human beings are equally valuable as human beings, the conviction that our work is not to judge who can or can't change, but to fulfill the prophecy that all people can change; each person can learn. The promise of special education was to demonstrate to all people, and especially to those of us most intimately involved, that each of us can contribute to the larger society, and that each person is his brother's keeper.

There are two sides to the mental health/mental retardation Monolith, the education/special education/school side and the medical/mental health/institution side, certainly not clear-cut dichotomies, certainly overlapping, certainly not all-inclusive but, nevertheless, having a relatively logical distinctiveness as well as an interaction. Yet, there is more distinction than interaction; explicitly, for organizations that are fundamentally strikingly similar, which deal with similar populations, have similar values and objectives, special educators know precious little about institutional caretakers -- and vice versa. Obviously, grossly horrifying institutions that you have read about, and some of us have seen, are "different" from most conventional schools. But, in several basic ways, the people are not "different" – neither the caretaker nor the client, each a victim and each a victimizer. In the institution, and in the school, there are not sufficient options for children with special needs, for families, and – of equal importance – for teachers and other staff. Possibly, for that reason if for no other, in institutions and too many schools, one generation's vipers is another's heroes, that which is one's disdain is another's enthusiasm. For, possibly, more than in open environments, institutions and schools are vulnerable to the fashions of the moment, fashions that dupe us to believe that we are the height of chic and enlightenment. Possibly, had it not been for the Monolith, we would have kept our promises, our commitments to ourselves and others; special education would have led to something more, something grander, than the creation of the largest and most pervasive segregated special class and institutional system known to civilized people.

What is the promise, the belief? That people can change, that – as human beings – all people are equally valuable, that a human being is entitled to developmental opportunities, and that development is plastic – educable. I have also learned that, for the promise to be kept, for these things to occur beyond the wish or fantasy, I must begin with myself. Before I ask the world to change, I must change. I am the center of the beginning step.

The Perspective

In the Old Testament, we are commanded to speak the truth and to so respect language as a reflection of one's truth that we must not take oaths. For, even if one fulfills an oath, the responsibility – the risk of failure – is too grave and, thus, the oath itself is sinful. There is even the admonition not to engage in "innocent" idle gossip for, all too often, such "harmless" talk leads to slander or meanness. Silence is golden. Powerful stuff! But, there are lessons to be learned from such commentaries on our language as analogies of our total selves.

Those in Academe – we, who supposedly live not by "truth" but by the pursuit of it – subscribe to the Biblical percept: Beware of he who too often proclaims his integrity, his promise to accomplish good deeds for people; and, beware of those who have found the "truth" and reveal it to save us. In the Old Testament, the burden in just making a promise is too awesome for ordinary people to contemplate. And, in the Academy, one is cautioned to speak with care, or not to speak, and to write with a very special care, or not to write. In the Academy, hypotheses are generated, then tested, then others generated, then retested – and, all the while, otherwise brave men cannot do more than test the null hypothesis, engage themselves in experiments or surveys that lead only to an acceptance of the null hypothesis (i.e., there is no difference) or a rejection of the null hypothesis (i.e., a dismissal of the hypothesis that there is no difference). We have neither the tools nor the tradition to test whether there had been a significant difference, for example, between those who received special Treatment A in contrast with those who received ordinary Treatment B. Only by indirection do we study the effects of special treatments, special environments, special opportunities, you-name-it special interventions.

And yet, within the nature of the writer/thinker – that which is surely embedded in the very words "writing" and "thinking" – is the belief that one's work, one's prose, rings true, and there is a faith that truth has its own beauty, and conviction its own value. For, there is also a creed of the professor which is to profess, and a creed of the active man, which requires the initiation of events not, merely, reaction to them. And, the writer, the thinker, the professor, the activist, all – each – want most that their works be taken seriously, want that more than anything else, i.e., more than whether people care for their words, their books, or even their behavior.

With admonitions from the past and the now-realities of Academe, too many scholars appear afraid – of being wrong or wronged – appear intimidated by critics, colleagues, their shadows, and other ghosts. There is a joylessness in our literature, and it is suffocating us while advancing neither science nor mankind. How many books does a person remember? How many ideas change him, possibly change others because of him? Name that handful of human beings whose ideas so profoundly influence us that our own scholarship, our own works, would have been different had those ideas not been part of the scene. The fascination of living through, being a part of, this period of American education and psychology is its own reward because – in spite of the pessimists and their arguments – we have had our share of unique human beings whose ideas and influence will remain long after their books and words are forgotten. This has not been a completely barren time, not a period of only despair. Therefore, admonitions notwithstanding, one who has participated might feel obligated to document the period, both for those who missed the excitement and for those who were there but missed the excitement. And, so, this so-called scholar's kit. Created from small accomplishments, but better intentions, I want to list some of the ideas, a few of the people and movements that still influence our lives, that "see" us through the dark nights and long days. I want to record the works that deserve an ear, and maybe a few that deserve one's totality. I want to synthesize, then analyze, then synthesize again for, as we read and write too much, one notices that few among us are doing those things; few are thinking about what we have become, what we have accomplished for people, what it all means for people, what the world has been, and what the world is about for the disabled, the sick, the "different," the frail, anyone in jeopardy.

Hence, this kit for all those who seek to do battle with the mythical – but real Monolith and with what I call its Human Disposal Authority, especially its Department of Subnormal Affairs. The kit may prepare you to begin to prepare to think differently about people, their natures, their capacities to change and contribute and rise to new heights. The kit may help a little as a person gropes to comprehend himself, his mortality, his intelligence, his conception of his capability for changing, and **his** unfolding. The kit discusses the works of people who share an optimism concerning the human potential. This is a basic kit, hopefully not contaminated by the conglomerate affairs of big business and institutional technologists and, as with all basic kits, stripped down. This kit has flaws, defects, weaknesses, holes. It will neither review the research exhaustively nor deeply. It will neither cover all aspects of educational programming and treatments for children with special needs nor feel the requirement for such coverage. That is, some of the holes and some of the flaws may be part of whatever is good about it. For example, children are, after all the polemics are voiced, just children. Is there a need in a paper on special education to say something about each of the categorical disabilities which are, in reality, administrative rather than scientific designations? Possibly, it may be more important to communicate that the world is dull for most people because our lives are made dull by the blandness, the sameness, of home and school and almost everything. Possibly, it may be more important to tell of people who should belong to humanity but can't find a way to join up. Possibly, it may be more important for us to understand that the problem facing special educators isn't just one of helping the "unfortunate handful" but also in bringing to so-called typical people opportunities to grow through their involvements with what Dick Hungerford (once the Director of the largest public school special class system in the world) called "difference." What I have been trying to say – but have been intimidated by those whom I fear may misunderstand – is that this paper is less about the so-called handicapped, and what we can do for them, than it is about people and what we must do for each other. For example, our society will be more civilized when equality of educational opportunity not only becomes an individual's right and the group's responsibility, **but** the individual's responsibility and the group's right. Will there be a day when I – I! – will feel that, not only am I entitled to an equal educational opportunity, but I have the right to live in an educated society and, therefore, I am franchised only when you are franchised.

And, what is the trick? The trick is to both guarantee such entitlements and deliberately maximize human variance. The objective is to offer each human being opportunities to live in peaceful surroundings and engage in one's work and interests – within a community, included, not hidden away, in a land where no longer will there be special institutions to cage a human spirit.

Sins of the Prophets: A Short Prejudiced History

Psychologists and sociologists have never helped a person understand why he creates madhouses and why he refuses to destroy them. This may be the proper time to turn to historians and poets for such help.

Historians would describe the world as it is, the people, the places, the forces that brought them together and those that caused their alienation.

Poets would describe the world as it should be, as it could become.

Historians are unfettered by the constraints imposed on other social scientists, constraints that require computation of averages and normative models.

Historians record and discuss real people, events, and places.

And poets, uncluttered by the past, untarnished in the present, and uncowed with prospects of the mysterious, would study our history and lead us to new and better ways.

History is the basic science. From history flows more than knowledge, more than prescription, more than how it was, but how we might try to make it become. And, although the one thing we learn from history is that we do not learn from history, it is the basic science. Physics is a history. Mathematics is history. Chemistry is a history. Humans have two unique gifts: language and creativity. The way we express history is the ultimate utilization of those gifts. If there was but a poet with such talents and interests to record this history of the care and education of people with special needs, much could be revealed; possibly, great discoveries would be made. While we await the contributions of more gifted historians, the following may temporarily fill the breach.

In the beginning, humans were created, and then humans created the criteria for being human. In the beginning, such criteria were simple, so simple that criteria were not important. When no person had language, humans needed no language. When no person had tools, humans needed no tools. In the beginning, the mere emergence from a woman's belly made one human.

Then, humans discovered their hands and their fingers. Subsequent discoveries led to the invention of laws, books, print, civilization, science, and attempts to control the environment.

During the interim, humans sought new understandings of themselves, their relationships with others, and with a higher being.

And, all the while, criteria and new criteria were invented and stipulated, first to classify, then to separate and set aside, eventually to defile, to dehumanize, to murder.

People with special characteristics – the blind, the deaf, the retarded, the special for a time, or the special irrespective of time or culture – became consistent targets for those who would separate one human being from another.

And, with each separation, prophets would announce that solutions to problems were at hand, the light at the end of the tunnel would now shine brightly. Desperate and sick humans would now be saved.

The ancients had their solutions, not humane but honest and without sham. Go, mother, take your sick child to the mountaintop; there the gods will decide who should live, who should die, who will be inscribed in the Book of Life or the Book of Final Decree.

So they went, some to the mountains, and the Hansels and Gretels to the forests. But, our priests told us that God was not pleased. Go ye not to the mountains and the forests. Thou shalt not kill. We, the State, will take your child in our asylums. We will care for the sick, the mad, the idiot child that you have spawned and let loose in this cruel and hard world.

Give us your child to minister unto.
Give us this forsaken being whom you have loved.
Give us that progeny who has no future.
God and the State will serve all beings.

And, so, they came,
From the farms and the villages,
From the great and the weak,
Innocent of the ways of priests and prophets.

And the State kept its word,
If not its faith,
Kept its covenant,
If not with God, then with the Devil.

First hundreds,
Then thousands,

Then hundreds of thousands,
Tomorrow, millions may inhabit our hells on this earth.

Again, certain prophets told the people that the God-State was not pleased with the work of these faithful servants. We must design new homes, small homes, regional homes, half-way homes, group homes, normalized homes, unit homes, extended care homes, but we must keep separate those who belong with us from those who do not. We must guarantee to families who have a child with special needs that the family will be here and the child will be there. This is a Great American Dream.

Consequently, it was near-universally agreed that it would be good if special homes for mental defectives were created. The doctors believed that such homes would be healthier for eligible patients than the precariousness of community existence. The psychologists believed that such homes would prove more therapeutic than other arrangements. The educators believed that such homes would provide greater developmental opportunities than public community facilities. The economists believed that such homes would be less expensive. Public safety officials believed that such homes would be more protective of **both** the general society and the defectives themselves. The politicians believed that such homes were what the people wanted. The parents thought that they should be grateful for whatever was allocated to relieve their problems. The defectives, not expected to think, were not asked to comment on the matter.

Only poets – not the doctors, who proved to be wrong, or all the others who, too, were wrong – saw the world differently. Poets comprehend this life through eyes that see differently, ears that hear differently, minds that think differently, and souls that feel and dream differently. Therefore, poets – neither shackled by the past nor contaminated by the future, not trained as technicians and, therefore, not constricted by tradition – were the first to accurately describe what had been wrought for the so-called defectives, and they were the first to envision a different promise, a different world for people – a world yet to be created.

Histories, Vanities, and Delusions

A. RESEARCH

History can be a strength of mankind, or its anchor. We can learn from it, or the only thing we learn is that we don't learn from it. History can be the basis for science, for progress, for creativity – or it can justify our vanities, with the games it plays, and those we play.

History can lead us to freedom, or it can continue to delude and thus, enslave those who would, who could otherwise, be free.

In this field we call special education, history has not served us well. We have not learned from it. It has made us almost hopelessly vain, when we should have been humble, satisfied, when we might have been constructively impatient. Examine the history of special education for the mentally retarded. Note well the discrepancy between the research and practice; yet, note too that research in the broader social sciences has neither prohibited poor practice nor stimulated good practice. Possibly, some among you may then conclude that research is little more or less than something for scholars to do and, probably, its major value lies in the process of doing it, rather than in the results or even implementation.

Since the early 1930's, hundreds of researchers, involving millions of dollars, millions of hours, and thousands of children and their teachers, have attempted to study the effectiveness of curricula, methods, administrative designs, and other factors that contribute to variance among special education programs for disabled children. Using the field of mental retardation as one example, the dollars and the hours essentially have been wasted and the products are generally useless. It isn't that the research has been dishonest or, even, "untrue," but merely trivial or irrelevant. For example, although one should hasten to note that the regular grades as they now exist are not proper placements for the so-called mentally retarded (but, on the other hand, who are they proper placements for?), research on the efficacy of special classes for the mentally retarded fails to indicate or illuminate the superiority (or even specialness) of special classes over more conventional classroom settings. The earliest studies (Bennett, 1932, and Pertsch, 1936) comparing mildly mentally retarded children in regular and special classes found that special class children did poorly in physical, personality, and academic areas when compared with children in regular classes. Research by this writer (Blatt, 1956) was the first post-war study roughly analogous to those of Bennett and Pertsch. I, too, found that special class placements did not appear to enhance the development of these so-called mentally retarded children. Cassidy and Stanton (1959) and Johnson (1961), among many others, also conducted projects that were more or less isomorphic with the aforementioned studies, reporting results that were, at best, inconclusive; i.e., it has yet to be demonstrated that, by placing mildly mentally retarded children in conventional special classes, we meet their needs in ways that regular class placements cannot. Further, studies concerned with so-called trainable mentally retarded children have been no more successful in demonstrating the superiority of special class placements (Cain and

Levine, 1961; Dunn and Hottel, 1958).

A more recent review by Frank Garfunkel and this writer (1973) confirmed the continued popularity of these efficacy studies, as well as the continued profusion of research on curriculum and teaching methods. In one way, the abundance of research of this type is disconcerting and frustrating. In another way, we have learned important lessons from these efficacy and methodology studies – that is, if we remember those lessons well enough to take them seriously. For, if we could but learn from history, what might we learn? The accumulation of evidence vis-a-vis special classes, special curricula, and special methodologies leads to the clear rejection of the special versus the regular class dichotomy, special curricula/not special curricula, and special methodology/not special methodology as defensible independent research variables, i.e., controlled and identified sources of treatment. Although there may be rare exceptions to this conclusion, the regularity of data findings suggests strongly that children's experiences are not systematically different if they are, for example, in one or another class. A child can have individual attention, warmth, support, friends, and an exciting program in either class. Furthermore, his home varies independently of the kind of class he is in. For example, where certain children live contributes so potently to variance that the homes may well "drown out" the effects of any differences connected with education programming. (See Coleman, et al., 1966, and Blatt and Garfunkel, 1969).

Why is it that, on the one hand, there is a plethora of research activity dealing with the effectiveness of curricula and methods and, on the other hand, a virtual absence of attention given to studies concerned with the effects of the home and community on learning and achievement? In view of enormous support to compensatory education and the subsequent documentation during the past decade of a persistent and pervavise relationship between socio-economic class and educational achievement (Coleman, et al., 1966; Hurley, 1964), one would believe that Rational Man might better appreciate that families and communities have a great deal of influence on the education and development of young children. Not only is the dearth of research dealing specifically with the home and community discouraging but, when such variables are employed as part of an intervention design, they are usually trivial in nature, i.e., they do not have particular meaning or importance, nor are they expected to contribute very much to the researcher's general understanding of the problems confronting him. For example, asking parents of Head Start children questions about how they feel towards their children, towards Head Start, or towards their community does not deliver revealing data. It amounts to using a teaspoon to do the work of a steam shovel. Similarly, attention to socio-economic status does not, in itself, attend to the relationship between poverty and the ways that poor families, or families with mentally retarded children, or any families, deal with schools.

Why? Why the disinterest in family-community studies and – in spite of discouraging history of neither research payoffs nor program development – why the continued adherence to experimental and quasi-experimental efficacy-curricula-methods studies? An answer may lie in the widely held belief that when one gets into other than traditional research methodologies it usually requires many months of observation. Secondly, most researchers are loath to use the less well established instruments which have uncertain reliabilities and the long and difficult data collection procedures that characterize family-community studies. Probably, researchers take satisfaction in doing relatively "clean" research, even if it may have neither meaning nor relevancy. For, like people elsewhere, researchers too have needs to conceptualize and pursue problems in "manageable" terms. A covert factor may be related to whatever biases researchers have concerning the concept of "change" itself. To discover that others can change, implies that the researcher too might have changed. He could be somebody other than who he is. Expectations for change are tied up with the lives of the expectors as much as with those for whom they have greater or lesser expectations. Designs, variables, procedures, and analyses are certainly influenced by these expectations.

However, although all of the above are reasonable explanations for the continued interest that researchers exhibit in traditional research that attempts to study the effects of stipulated interventions, it is doubtful that those reasons – even collectively – could continue to persuade intelligent and educated professionals to devote themselves to an endeavor that fails to reinforce either the researcher or the public at large that sponsors them. Therefore, there must be additional reasons for this pollution of feeble research on trivial problems.

During the years, and to the present time, many well-reasoned theories and methods have been presented to both explain behavior and describe ways to modify it efficiently and beneficially (Blatt, 1967). We may label and discuss these developments either in terms of methodological pronouncements or in their fuller contexts – the application of method derived from theory. For the sake of simplicity, I will refer to, for example, the Montessori Method or Moore's Responsive Environments Methods, knowing that they have rich and exciting theoretical histories that deserve discussion in their own rights.

An examination of the more spectacular methods that have been developed in pedagogy and psychology has led me to the following observation. It is based on reviews of the lives and works of such early greats as Itard, Seguin, Sullivan, Freud, and Montessori, as well as the study of contemporary methodologists, including Skinner, Frostig, Omar Moore, and others who have developed reading, mathematics, special and general methodological approaches to teaching children. It is suggested that each significant methodological contribution begins with an individual who is interacting with a child, or a group of children, in such a way as to promote extraordinary change. This change is noted by that individual and/or others and causes astonishment and excitement. Why are the children doing so well? Why are they learning to read so quickly? Why is mathematics no longer an horrendous puzzlement? Or, why is the sick person getting better? Closer attention is given to the interaction between the teacher (or therapist, or experimentor, or psychologist) and the child. A careful description of the interaction is reported. From this inductive approach, a recording of the educational or therapeutic presentation is prepared; a new "method" unfolds. The teacher is teaching in a certain way, using a certain style, and promoting certain desired responses. Various people develop collaborations with the methodologist – but around the method. They study it in its original natural setting. They experiment with it. They refine and modify it. They become infatuated with the notion that the gains they observe are dependent on the order, style, and materials of the presentation. They learn a good deal about this method, the responses it ordinarily generates, its frailties, the problems it creates and how to overcome these, and its most efficient utilization. They train others to use the method. They write books about it and develop elaborate ways to present it, test it, and relate it to a host of other methods, treatments, and conditions. Hence, we have literally thousands of studies completed on how almost infinite varieties of individuals behave, for example, in psychoanalytic settings, what the behaviors mean in innumerable circumstances, what responses should be presumed to be pathological and what responses are healthy.

There are several things that strike me about individuals who are responsible for the development of spectacular methods. From an examination of the literature, and from my own observations of the current scene, each appeared to be a gifted teacher and interactor. Each appeared to have a dynamic quality that attracted the attention of other individuals. Each appeared to have a powerfully charismatic personality that brought droves of disciples into the fold. Each was a great teacher! An analysis of the research relating to spectacular methodologies produces other interesting conditions to speculate about. From the sensationalist method of Itard and Seguin to the present works of Doman and Delacato, Omar Moore, Bereiter and Englemann, the new math, and the special reading programs, verification studies of special methodologies find less conclusive, less promising, less significant results than those found by the method's originator(s). For example, Omar Moore has demonstrated a good deal more with automated or non-automated typewriters than have those who replicated his work. The most significant changes observed in children using the Doman-Delacato methodology can be observed at their Institute for the Development of Human Potential.

If a method has an integrity of its own, if it is not almost singularly dependent on the skill and interactive ability of the applicator and the social-psychological setting of its application, one would suppose that, for example, after more than a half-century of the analytic model, refinements of method alone would have caused psychoanalysis to have advanced beyond its current place in the psychological scheme of things. There is no doubt that some methods work well. Further, there is no doubt that some methods work better for some people than do other methods. Still further, there is no doubt that some methods are more logically conceived, implemented, and utilized than others. There is a great deal of doubt that any method is very far removed from those who employ it, understand it, have faith in it, and experiment with it. There is only assurance that great teachers have great methods and poor teachers have poor methods – irrespective of the methods the teachers employ, irrespective of the fact that, regularly, great teachers and poor teachers utilize similar methods in contiguous settings.

Yet, the vanity and delusion are sustained, the vanity that we have effective curricula and methods, and the delusion that these contribute most to change in children. What does it matter if history could teach us that there are no especially superior theories and methods for studying and dealing with behavior, that there are only teachers and psychologists whose endeavors yield high productivity and others whose endeavors yield low productivity? What does it matter if precision and vigorous controls are just not available in the study of natural settings? What does it matter if we should have learned by now that only extreme changes in placement, procedure, or opportunity can possibly produce measurable effects on individuals? One hour each day for "enrichment," a summer Head Start program, even a special class, much less a special method or curriculum, will have about as much effect as what one should expect from a trivial intrusion into an enormously complicated human totality!

And, yet, we might ask, "Then, what research should be done?" Or, "Not only what, but why?" For me, the "what" is implied, if not stated directly. Most educational research have used traditional designs, whether they were efficacy studies, follow-up studies of children in special and regular classes, studies of different methodological approaches, or studies of different curricula approaches. We believe there may be more appropriate ways to study teaching-learning environments, utilizing research perspectives that may be characterized as "process' and focusing on human interactive concerns rather than methodological concerns. As methods do not exist outside unique psychological-educational settings, only a naive researcher, or a cynical one, could conclude that the superiority of his method has direct and specific transferability to other educational settings. Our strategy recommends the study of children and adults in different educational environments, generalizing about their interactions rather than the procedures (methods-curricula) utilized to promote their interactions. That is, we believe that independent variation in the classroom obtains more than interaction effects (what we now, usually, try to neutralize or ignore in most experiments) than from methodological or curricula effects (what we now, usually, design as "independent variables").

Why research? For that matter, why education. Do the products of research, or education, make people smarter, more moral, more mentally healthy, more physically able? Is our President today, or the next one to be, more intelligent than Jefferson? Is this Pope or chief Rabbi more spiritual, a greater leader, than the first Pope or the first Rabbi? Is there a connection between research results and practices? And, if there isn't, should we be disturbed about the matter?

Research, and education, are activities that cannot be separated from values and prejudices about people. And, because of that, the one who conducts the research is most affected by it, as the one who engages in his education is most influenced by the experience. Research is valuable because of its effects on the people who engage in it. If it's of help to the greater society, or disabled children, or the child you teach, all to the good. However, as unpopular as this may be to many, it should be stated that the history of research in the social sciences might lead to the conclusion that its primary value is for those who do it, and the payoff to the larger community results as those researchers and their various colleagues, and their colleagues, influence us.

The above considerations cause me to recommend that we should not promote studies that examine the effects of a special curriculum (or talking typewriters, or open classrooms) on, for example, the intellectual development of mentally retarded children. Those kinds of studies are literally doomed to demonstrate little and, more seriiously, will hardly influence even the researchers. Better, we might study a group of children and their teachers, and their schools, and the families of the children, and the community. We might better study how the effects of our intervention changed the "traffic patterns" of parents **vis-a-vis** their relationships with the school\rather than how the intervention stimulated I.Q. changes in the children. We might better study how the intervention influenced the community, the city fathers, the media, in directions related to such issues as equal educational opportunities, advocacy, options for people, and consumer rights and responsibilities. As long as we continue to study children developmentally, utilizing single-variable approaches, we will continue to, literally, exaggerate differences between groups as we attempt to minimize individual differences; we will continue to reinforce the position of those who claim that you can't make a silk purse out of a sow's ear, that dull children must always remain dull, that nothing is curable and hardly anything preventable. The dominant research strategy in our culture virtually guarantees the triviality of our research. However, maybe that is exactly what various vested interests count on!

B. TEACHING

The preparation of teachers, in special education, regular education, you-name-it education, has not suffered from a lack of discussion. However, as we said more than a dozen years ago, the preparation of teachers remains essentially an unstudied problem in education (Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt, 1962). Further, it is unstudied for the same reasons that research activities in our field are of little consequence. As researchers seek better methods and general solutions to pedagogical problems, professors in our teachers' colleges teach "best" methods and "best" curricula, hoping to fortify students with enough techniques for them to teach well and, so it turns out, to teach without having to think independently. The relationship between educational research and teacher preparation is so direct as to hardly permit the separation of one from the other, each activity mobilized in search of universal and happy solutions to complex problems and issues.

As were the chemists of the Middle Ages who limited their scientific and mystical pursuits to the search for the alkahest, the universal solvent, and the panacea, the universal remedy, we have among us modern alchemists who, in their quests for ways to educate the child, make the extraordinarily puzzling extraordinarily simple. In their distrust of the unknown, they return and, thus, drag some of us to some simple life of order and design, of cherished theory and trusted method. And, the foolishness continues for the same reason that young children maintain fantasy lives for long periods of time, and for the same reason that escapist adults believe that, by ignoring a problem, it will go away. And, we continue to "grind" out teachers whose teaching reflects the conception that education is primarily what one puts into children rather than what one can get out of them, whose preparation had reinforced the above conception, who – at best – can claim that they are good technicians and implementors. And, further, our technologies, our competency-based efforts, our new certifications or non-certifications, are making matters worse rather than better. For, as one colleague recently remarked to me, there truly is a difference between a teacher who can demonstrate stipulated competencies and the competent teacher.

Yet, the educational enterprise endures its problems and critics with such stiff-necked forbearance that one might be tempted to believe that theirs is indifference to the slings and arrows. For, if not indifference, then what? There have been so many problems, so many critics, so many new laws and law suits, so many new programs, money allocated, banners hoisted. Still, the problems continue and the critics multiply; but hardly anything changes. Why has the educational enterprise created franchised schools, on the one hand, and educational supermarkets to support them on the other. A better question might be, "Could it be any other way?" Given the circumstances of our teachers and their training, given the world as it is and what it was, one must answer that it could not be any other way, and the future portends yesterday. The educational enterprise is a Monolith, no more capable of dealing with revisionism than any other Monolith, be it world Communism or the International Business Machine Company. For, although there is embedded in any Monolith the possibilities for flexibility and change (or it crumbles), there is only such freedom as is contained within the parameters of rigidly enforced rules, regulations, customs, and values. Not far from the surface of every educational argument is that single block of ideological stone, that massive, solid, uniform, no-option, no-alternative slot machine of one system. It is found in children's classrooms because their teachers found it in their classrooms, because their teachers' teachers found it in theirs. Within the flexibility of the system that encourages almost infinite varieties of methods and curricula, that fosters open schools which are contiguous to traditional schools, and supports both free schools and special schools, is an oppressive custom that demands allegiance to but one generalized commandment: **You will not create because you are what you are.** Let us seek the best way for all people, because one individual is incapable of finding it for himself; let us develop together and, thus, avoid my confrontation with myself as creator as well as user, mover as well as follower, the responsible being as well as the responsibility.

Hence, sameness of mind is the mortar that binds and strengthens the Monolith. In the elementary classroom, a child who remembers well scores well; and, in the college, the student who consumes and implements is preparing for the Teacher of the Year Award. We train technicians in our colleges who, from the beginning and to the present, seek competency. We train for technical skills as we train people to live apart from those who have lesser skills, or who appear different, or who think different, or whose metaphors are different. Essentially, our technical consumer education promotes an invariance of life and spirit, both by the influence of the technology on Man and by Man's subsequent behavior as a consuming experience-bound being.

Consequently, the apparent – and in a sense, real – flexibility and innovation in our schools! We advertise segregated schools, open schools, free schools, and ungraded schools in the educational supermarket for the same reasons others advertise Chevrolet, Keds, and popsicles; we believe we have the best product or, at the very least, we wish to convince the consumer that – all things being equal – our products offer the most value. As a result, our schools virtually have become franchised – duplicative in the same way General Motors and Howard Johnson are duplicative – strengthened by our teachers' colleges who have always been educational supermarkets – "you don't have to (we know you can't) think independently, see all the goodies we offer, choose within this wide array, consume to your satiation level, beyond if you wish, buy, but don't create, don't struggle to understand the process from the product, don't go beyond the boundaries of the marketplace, be different, but don't be different from any of the rest of us, be a part of this wonderful educational slot machine world."

What does humanity receive for its educational investment? Without doubt, most children learn to read and write; some progress far beyond their teachers' hopes, some far beyond their teachers. It isn't that consumerism prevents learning; merely, it interferes with it. That is, to the degree that teachers do not discourage abstract behavior and classroom variance, learning (changing) must be given a better chance to occur. To the degree that teachers – elementary and university teachers alike – impose a standard curriculum, method, school organization, even content (possibly, especially content), the educational Monolith will thrive.

What we need more of are: child and teacher independence (thus, fostering their interdependence), learning toward greater generalizations, inductive models, options, and the maximization of heterogenous groupings of people. What we need less of are: mandated curricula, lonely teachers and children, segregated classes and schools – for whatever the reasons – consumerism to the discouragement of creativeness, and program consolidation.

In education, the Monolith is not the teachers' college, or the segregated class, or even the pedantic curriculum. The Monolith is created and held together from the rubble of destroyed options, from the absence of not so much the bricks and structures of alternative educational designs (for these, too, have been known to victimize those who hold minority views), but from the absence of alternative thinking and values. Yet, I must keep remembering what one perceptive student tried to teach us: Haven't we learned anything from Henry Ford? It isn't nearly as efficient to build or service (teach) people individually as it is on an assembly line. I have been forgetting that the people I would want the schools to educate must "run" (function) efficiently and be "serviced" (satisfied) easily.

The Franchised School and the Educational Supermarket – the fulcrum of the Monolith – are the enemies of those who would seek an education for themselves, enemies not because of any deliberate wickedness, but because they represent a limited view of human potential, and what the world can become, and that the world is each man, not multiplied but singular – unique and valuable; and, that each man can create to help himself and, possibly, to help others.

In essence, I am suggesting that educational models be studied from historical rather than prescriptive perspectives. That is, curricula, methods, media, and school organizations might be understood best in the context of what was accomplished rather than what must be attempted. This strategy seems less restrictive and promises greater discovery and illumination than the traditional prescriptive "best method" strategy. The literature on pedagogy and psychology confirms this position, i.e., there is no consistent significant source of independent (treatment) variation obtaining from special methods, curricula strategies, or administrative organizations. Further, I believe that the process of creating educational environments contributes more to independent variation than the environments themselves, especially when these are artificially contrived from educational supermarkets.

Shakespeare said, "Though this be madness, yet there is method in it." To some educational researchers and those who utilize their products, I rebut, "Though this be your method, there is mindlessness in it."

C. EDUCABILITY

Throughout my career, I have been engaged in but one general endeavor. I have written books and monographs, studied and interacted with children and their families, the nature of that work always concerning concepts relating to educability, plasticity of development, the potentials each person has for changing. During the years, my work has dealt with several recurring themes, each inevitably anchored to the hypothesis of mankind's educability. The first such theme deals with the so-called nature-nurture question. And, although there is little scientific evidence that permits definitive answers to this age-old issue, I have concluded that there is considerable clinical evidence that people can change, that intelligence is educable, that capability is a function of practice and training. The work of Itard, the autobiography of Helen Keller, the works of Mae Seagoe, Harold Skeels, Samuel Kirk, Seymour Sarason, and my own experiences and research, lend support to the educability hypothesis. However, evidence aside, for but one reason dealing with the historic responsibility of those in the helping professions, I believe that this hypothesis is our only defensible hypothesis. That is, as my colleague Frank Garfunkel of Boston University once said, "There is nothing essentially inherent in retardation to produce handicap. Further, it is not the mission of teachers and other practitioners to find out whether or not that belief is true, but to make it become true."

The philosophical underpinnings of my research and other activities are strengthened by the belief that, as human beings, all people are equally valuable. Bengt Nirje enunciated this concept through the so-called "Normalization Theory." However, the religious and ethical teachings of countless others since the beginning of our civilization provide us with varied expressions of this idea, and with a glimmer of hope that we will one day take it more seriously than heretofore.

Unfortunately, human beings have a penchant to segregate, to separate, to stigmatize, to make pariahs of other human beings and, more than ever before, we seem to be engrossed in such activities. On the other hand, I am encouraged that people today seem to want to discuss these issues. Further, at long last, the myth of such terms as "mental retardation" appears to be partially understood. The efficacy studies, the nomenclaure changes*, the Black Revolution, and other scientific and social movements have led us to a better comprehension that, for example, "mental retardation" is no more than an administrative term. The words "mental retardation" have little, if any, scientific integrity. We had to appreciate that idea before we could take seriously the concept of educability. Or, maybe, it's the other way around; before we were able to learn that mental retardation is a contrived administrative label, referring to a current functional condition, we had to admit to a notion of human educability.

Aun Apprendemous; we are learning. More than that, learning – changing – need not necessarily proceed at an invariant rate. Even more importantly, educability need not refer only to children, but to their teachers, and their teachers' teachers, to all people. Most importantly, learning and knowing are not enough. People are essentially what they do, not what they think or hope. Not only should we consider the possibility that people can change but, if we want to give that hypothesis a chance to prove itself, we must behave as if people can change.

Hence, my preoccupation with the hypothesis of educability and with the development of strategies to promote the educability of intelligence. The literature relevant to the research in this area is vast, partly because it deals with problems as old as man, and partly because the questions asked and the answers given remain, to this day, far from clear. Perhaps, for our purposes, it might be enough to suggest that the evidence is ambiguous, some of the evidence suggesting that Man can change, while other research suggests the opposite; the jury is out – Jensen notwithstanding, Blatt notwithstanding.

For our purposes, it might be enough to conclude this section with a definition of what I mean by "educating intelligence." Simply stated, educating intelligence may be thought of as referring to pro-

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**The most recent, little appreciated but astonishing, revision of the American Association on Mental Deficiency definition of mental retardation to include theoretical eligibility – i.e., psychometric retardation – to from one to two standard deviations on the "wrong" side of the mean literally revolutionized the incidence, prevalence, and concept of mental retardation, all with the simple stroke of Herbert Grossman's pen (1973). We cannot redefine measles, or cancer, or pregnancy with so easy and such external procedures. The Grossman Committee, sitting around a conference table, reduced enormously the incidence of mental retardation, never having to "see," or "dose," or deal with a client, only having to say that, hereinafter, mental retardation is such and such, rather than this or that. What, then, is mental retardation?*

cedures and conditions that bring out or elicit capacities in an individual for changing, both in rate and complexity, his learning performance insofar as school-related and other problem-solving tasks are concerned (Blatt and Garfunkel, 1969). The emphasis here reflects the Latin origin of the word education: to lead forth, to draw forth, bring out, elicit. Change may be measured through the use of intelligence and other standardized and informal tests. On the behavioral level, change is reflected in the child's ability to handle with increasing skill the variety of problems confronting him as a student and as a human being. It is our assumption that change becomes both significant and possible when the individual: a) needs to change, b) aspires to change, and c) is optimistic about the possibility for change. Educating intelligence refers to more than hypothetical mental faculties or abilities. It also refers to attitudes about self, learning, and abilities, without which the phenomenon of change cannot be comprehended.

Alfred Binet, whose concepts provided much of the inspiration for our research on educability, was unable to create an environment to promote intellectual development. Neither Binet's "Mental Orthopedics," Omar Moore's "Responsive Environments," our Early Education Program, nor any other known to us have been able to demonstrate convincingly that capability is educable. However, as long as one maintains a genuine interest in the concept of educability, or as long as one believes that the true vocation of the teacher is to help people learn, not make determinations about who can or can't learn, this is a type of research or clinical activity that demands continued involvement, regardless of the outcome of one's previous failures. Therefore, I continue to invest totally in an examination of the concept of educability. We still have much to learn about the nature-nurture interaction, about the most efficient period to begin intervention, about the varieties of possible intervention models that may have the most desired effects, about better ways to study interventions, about better ways to study groups of children interacting with teachers and how they affect families, communities and cultures. It is all terribly complicated stuff and, for reasons brought out earlier, most research efforts, including research on educability, are doomed from the beginning to disappoint us. But, isn't that the reason why, at least, some "nativists" support the funding of Head Start and other studies of educability, to illustrate by such failures the attractiveness of a rational racism? However, what has again and again been brought to us so clearly is that the "educability" hypothesis has a pervasive fascination that sustains the researcher, for the concept includes all people and so many things that it can easily intrude into every nook and cranny of our time and energy; the hypothesis refers not only to children, not only to the mentally retarded, not only to those in the inner city or those in the institution but, to the degree it has relevance for those groups, it has relevance for all of us – not only for children, but for their teachers, not only for their teachers, but for the teachers of their teachers. For a child to change, his teacher has to change. For my student to have changed, I had to.

D. EPIDEMIOLOGY

Epidemiological research aims to define and describe conditions associated with specific disorders. It analyzes the incidence, characteristics, and distributions of such disorders, attempting to relate demographic variables to etiological factors. No careful epidemiologic study can be conducted without a great deal of effort and resources. And, further, epidemiological study of the so-called handicapped places yet greater burdens on the researcher. Review of our own study **Mental Retardation in Southeastern Connecticut** (Blatt, 1973), or any of the other serious investigations of the incidence, prevalence, distribution, and antecedents of disability (Tarjan, et al., 1973) reveal why there are relatively few comprehensive epidemiological reports in our literature, in contrast to the enormous contributions such studies might offer to the solution of both basic and applied problems. However, there is a sufficient body of work available for us to have learned that the incidence (rate of occurrence) and, especially, the prevalence (extent of the condition in a specific group) of mental retardation depend almost precisely on such influences as definition and criteria, age, program supports, community resiliency, broad cultural values, social class, and other factors that provide compelling support for the position that the label "mental retardation" has more to do with political and administrative rather than with biological-psychological-scientific matters. That is, to describe mental retardation as a condition which affects two or three percent (or, since the Grossman Manual, one percent) of the total population is to be less than naive, is to camouflage reality, is to deny thought and reason with the hope that prayers to the Gaussian curve will bring happiness if not wisdom. After several years of intense involvement in our aforementioned study of the incidence and prevalence of retardation, we are persuaded that we are dealing with no more than one percent of the total population, and possibly no more than three-quarters of one percent of the total population, who at any one time need (or were known to have needed) special services because of their mental retardation. This is by way of saying that, although it is quite apparent that three percent of our population are psychometrically retarded (the test construction guarantees this in the exact manner it guarantees that fifty percent of our population have I.Q.'s below 100; half the population is below average; that's about what the word "average" means), no more than one percent of our population are in need of special services because they are mentally retarded. Further, one-half of that one percent are either in the public schools' special programs for the mentally retarded or do not need any special services at the present time. Further still, given an adequate community-based program of alternatives for families, there should never be a need for more than one-tenth of one percent of the total general population to require residential placements because of some situation associated with their retardation; and, it should be noted, such residential placements need never be in arrangements that include populations greater than eight. That is, our large, traditional institutions should be evacuated as speedily as possible. They neither help people, nor are they necessary – and they persist only because they serve magnificently that portion of our society who are responsible for the creation and maintenance of human slot fillers, wherever they are and for whomever they are.

For purposes of program planning and service delivery, it is important to understand the difference between psychometric and administrative mental retardation, a concept that unfortunately has not reached most of our textbooks in the field. For example, on the one hand, we have psychometric mental retardation (essentially, I.Q. less that 75) to include approximately three percent of our total population. On the other hand, we find the incidence of known retardation to be approximately one percent. Further, prevalences among preschool and adult populations is somewhat less than one percent, while it is somewhat more than one percent among school-aged children. Stated another way, from group to group – depending on age, socio-economic status, community values, etc. – prevalences of mental retardation range from much less than one percent to much more than one percent; nevertheless, the total population includes three percent who are psychometrically (but not necessarily mentally) retarded, and no more than one percent who are mentally (i.e., administratively) retarded.

This probelm , vis-a-vis the incidence and prevalence of a particular condition, exists across all the so-called disability groups and, consequently, estimates of the various categorical handicaps vary from study to study, from culture to culture, and from time to time. What should be stated, as plainly as possible, is that disability means no more or less than being placed in a special class, a special program, or a special setting as a consequence of that disability – or, not being placed as a consequence of that disability. That is, the most relevant definition of a disability must include reference to the fact that it is essentially administratively determined.

Developing incidence estimates, predictions of program needs, and cost benefit analyses are extraordinarily hazardous when dealing with these diverse populations. For example, in one state, attempts are made to integrate so-called educable mentally retarded children in regular grades; in another state, such youngsters are in regular grades and not thought of or called mentally retarded. In yet another state, every effort is made to place as many children as possible with I.Q.'s less than 75 in special classes for the mentally retarded. In Connecticut, for example, many blind children attend public schools, most in regular classes. In a contiguous state, Massachesetts, possibly because of the presence of a venerable and heavily endowed private school, most blind children do not attend the public schools. In some cities in New York state, deaf children attend public schools. In other cities, deaf children must attend residential schools if they are to be educated since, unfortunately, there are no classes or programs for the deaf in the public schools of those areas.

Therefore, estimating the incidence and prevalence of a disability is, at best, difficult and, always, error-ridden, even after arduous epidemiologic study. In one community, there may be as many as thirty or forty percent of the public school population who are psychometrically retarded; in another community, within the same city or region, psychometric retardation may be as low as one-half of one percent of a school population. Similarly, estimating the incidence of behavioral disturbances is very difficult. Surprisingly, even estimates of such apparently objective disabilities as blindness, deafness, and physical handicap do not provide the clear cut data some might expect (The Fleischmann Report, on the Quality, Cost and Financing of Elementary and Secondary Education in New York State, 1972).

After all is counted and analyzed, the prepotent lesson one learns is that there is a difference – a political, pragmatic, legal, and scientific difference – yet a hardly understood difference, between psychometric and administrative mental retardation, or, as another example, between audiogramatic and administrative deafness. In the last analysis, there is an irony which suggests that not until we appreciate this special difference between objective and administrative disability will we begin to understand that, basically, there is never a difference between people. That is, we will eventually understand that, as human beings, people are just people, and our shared heritage overwhelms a veneer of potentially enriching variability which, although thin, causes us too much grief as one excludes the other from his "turf" and consciousness.

E. A Summary

Since the early 1950's, when I began study of public school special education programs, there have been a great many attempts to evaulate the effectiveness of those programs. And, although state schools, being more secluded and more segregated, have been subjected to fewer formal evaluations in contrast with the numerous so-called special class efficacy studies, these too are now regularly examined.

Research on the effectiveness of special classes for so-called handicapped children, as mentioned earlier in this paper, has now grown to impressively large and depressingly hollow proportions. Again, as mentioned earlier, the conclusion is that there is little research to encourage the expansion of special classes as we now know them. And, from Dorothea Dix to Kraepelin, to the more recent observations to Wolfensberger, Klaber, Menolascino, Dybwad, and others, there is consistent conformation that, by its very nature, the state institution is infinitely less able to offer its residents humane care, and completely incompentent to provide them with opportunities to contribute to society and live dignified and purposeful lives. Yet, in total disregard of the few, but powerful, reports of institutional life and the scientifically questionable, but numerous, reports of special class life, we continue to build more and more institutions and pass more and more mandatory, rather than permissive, special class (not education) laws — in spite of the well known fact that we have yet to demonstrate either the efficacy or moral rectitude in continuing, much less encouraging, these segregated programs. To return to an earlier theme, such proliferation in the face of no evidence is but another illustration of the Monolithic influence. There is an urge that we seem to have to segregate while we engage ourselves in a constant flirtation between order and disaster, humanism and barbarism, love and hate. No wonder, some claim the world has gone mad, and sad, and bad. Little wonder that we have lost sight of the distinction between human privileges and human rights.

The Promise

Why this discrepancy between what we know and what we do? Why backwards? Why have we moved so grudgingly from Dorothea Dix to the 20th Century? Why do we, in the United States, know more about and do less for disabled people than other western cultures? Are we, in fact, a nation devoted to our young and our vulnerable? We speak as if we are; our proclamations are frequent and strident. Moreover, we enact child labor laws and public education laws; we support treatment services for handicapped children.

However, in spite of what some may consider our best efforts, there is more violence, more frustration, more alienated youth, more sick children in our culture than ever before. Consequently, we must think seriously about the notion that we are not a "child-centered society," that we use this term in an unexamined way. On the evidence of too many reports, I am forced to consider the possibility that we never had a "child-centered" society. We are for children to the degree that children are for us; but first, and sometimes only, in this "adult-centered" society each man is for himself. At least, one would be hard put to find sufficient evidence to reject this characterization of us – not of "them" or even of "you," but of us. I must change.

While I wait for a better world, I reflect on those days of our youth and callowness when we thought that, if people only would "understand," mental retardation would be prevented. But while I wait, I must change. While I wait for the millenium, I painfully record our human frailties, our inabilities to face life for whatever it is and for whatever it has to offer, and I must, in spite of its vicissitudes and the unfairness of it all, respect living as the one thing we have in common; for better or worse, it's all we have to stay alive. And, if your retarded child is all you have, that child is part of the reality of your life. That human being is part of the enrichment of your life. Without her, your life would be less full, and you would have fewer opportunities to learn, and contribute, and love. She owns part of your world, as you must own part of hers.

And I, too, own a part of my family, a part of the university, a part of society, a part of the total "action." I, too, must think and do, not only for others, but for myself. But, what I must do most urgently is change. For the world to change, I must change. If I blame an evil world, a stupid system, ineffective leaders, or man's obvious imperfections, I may be right. But if it means that I do not have to change, I contribute to the evil. Before we can change humanity, we must change ourselves. Before I attempt to solve the human puzzle, I must solve the riddle "I." I must think about my unfolding as the beginning of understanding civilization's evolution.

What is the promise for people? What are we, and what must we become? We have seen the view of Monoliths from behind windows to nothing and we are not pleased. Therefore, we wonder what our people have become, what we have become – and what we must now do. The answer is as plain as it is complicated, clear as it is opaque. We must create a union of consumers, professionals, attendants, students, their professors, great people, ordinary people — each concerned with Monoliths, with departments of mental health and education, with the inner city, with institutions and public schools, with the legislature, and united on behalf of all who have asked or wondered what we have become. We must join together on behalf of the inmates, the state school and hospital residents, the ghetto children, and — finally — on behalf of each of us living through these difficult times.

We must seek a society where leaders will not merely lead but will be led by greater visions and authorities than they possess — and a society where the people will be led because they are independent. We must envision a society that will be free of dehumanizing and debilitating state-sponsored domiciles, a society that will evacuate human beings from any facility that abuses or enslaves. We must create a society that has compassion for all those who are saddened, yet comprehends the difference between he who regrets his own lost years and he who worries for his brothers. We must think about a man who weeps, not for those for whom the world may suspect he weeps, but for his zealousness and for himself. And, possibly today, each of us is that man.

We must create an organization that earlier reformers, were they here today, would join. We must unite, not about specific tasks orientations but about powerful ideologies, not about special means but about a consensus of humanistic ends, not about silly slogans thoughtlessly chanted but about the infinite perspectives of a complex dilemma. We must describe and understand the subtle as well as the flagrant, ennui as well as flailing arms and diffuse excrement, and pandemonium as an extension of the best-managed "model" institution. We must act as if Itard, Howe, Dorothea Dix, Helen Keller, and Emil Kraepelin are our judges. We must convince others — and ourselves — that the state does not own a man, that the state controls but may not buy or sell a human being, that I may destroy **myself** but the state has no right to myself or my corpse — nor to my feelings, nor mind, nor spirit, that freedom is more important than life itself. We must illuminate the irony of a state that is permitted, by law, to take or reduce my life while I — who should be the owner — may not, under penalty of fine or imprisonment, take my own life or cause myself bodily harm. The state may, with (or sometimes without) provocation kill me, institutionalize me, seclude me, shock me, drug me, dirty me, animalize me. But I, who should be the owner, may not kill myself, scaldalize myself, drug myself, dirty myself, or dehumanize myself. The state — as it substitutes pills for straight jackets and therapeutic isolation for solitary cells — does not change in the truly important dimensions, as it demands that each of us bend and twist, as we scrape low to say grace and pay homage to the state. Long live the state and to hell with man – even, exquisite irony, to hell with each man who represents the state. Man once manufactured the state and, now, the state manufactures man; the state is now the apotheosis of man! Possibly, Hemingway thought of the state when he remarked, "All things truly wicked start from innocence."

Don't some informed men share these concerns? Certainly, there have been many who tried to reshape our styles of living and thinking. There are some among us who understand the difference between feeding and eating, and between eating and dining. But all their concerns seem to have led to so meager accomplishment, to so trivial common good! And so our involvement, and a small hope, and these words. For, in spite of some claims that it is darkest before the dawn, one may yet encounter terror at high noon, and one may thus conclude that Man's days can be as black as his nights.

Therefore, we must band together, as each makes his special commitment to change. We must become a new people, no longer underestimating the potentials we have for changing, no longer pessimistic concerning the conditions of change and, thus, no longer fulfilling the prophecy of no-change, finally convinced that development is a function of opportunity and training. We must believe that our inability to have better stipulated the conditions of learning is less a defect of the educability hypothesis than of our practices. Finally, for me to change and, thus, for the world to change, I must believe in a design of things, and that the design for all of us holds nothing but good. I must become a new man. But how, the final question? And, after the question, not an answer but a hypothetical dialogue, a speculation; and then, there remains only you and only me. But, possibly at least today, we are brothers.

"What is Man?"
"One who knows he exists."
"That's Descartes."
"Descartes is Man."

"Can Man endure?"
"First, he must think, so he can be."
"Is that enough?"
"No, to endure, Man must feel."

"How can he improve?"
"He must invent."
"What is his most important invention?"
"Ideas."

"But, Man has so few ideas."
"Because he is violated."
"Then, how should Man meet violence?"
"With other than violence."

"How will I know what I am?"
"When you know what you are not."
"And, then will I know?"
"Yes, if you don't fool yourself."

"How will I know of the Cosmos?"
"When you cease the struggle to understand."
"How can I know without understanding?"
"That is the only way to know of the Cosmos."

"What must I resist?"
"What everyone else seems to do."
"What, then, would I learn?"
"What no one else knows."

"When everything is gone, what is left?"
"You."
"Then, what do I have?"
"Everything, or nothing."

"But, there is an interconnection."
"Are you asking if a man is alone?"
"No, I am saying he is not."
"Then, you are wrong."

"A person is not unrelated!"
"But he is unique."
"He is not an island!"
"But he is even less a carbon."

"I sense an unfriendliness."
"No, it is independence you feel."
"Whose?"
"Yours, if you seize it."

"But, there are paradoxes and contradictions."
"Where aren't there?"
"Why make them manifest?"
"So we may deal with them."

"Independence risks everything."
"Dependence nothing, for there is nothing."
"Too many problems."
"And many solutions."

"How do I begin?"
"Analyze things."
"To learn about them?"
"To learn about yourself."

"What should I look for?"
"Your vulnerability."
"Which is?"
"What you will try to overlook."

"How will I know when by path is honest?"
"When you walk alone."
"What is the danger then?"
"That others may follow you."

"Who will our leaders be?"
"Those who have learned to listen."
"Then, how will they lead?"
"By following their people."

"What will it require?"
"Independence."
"The leaders'?"
"And the peoples'."

"Who will follow this kind of leader?"
"Those who will be free not to."
"Who will obey?"
"Those who are indepedent."

"Then, what is the world?"
"Each person."
"All people together?"
"No, each one counted separately."

"Where is the world going?"
"Look at its past."
"What will we learn from it?"
"That we learn nothing from it."

"Don't we learn from history?"
"Only that we have not learned from history?"
"Then, we are doomed to relive it again and again."
"Or, to begin to learn from history."

"How, then, have we planned?"
"Poorly."
"One hears that there is virtue in not planning."
"False virtue, for any road will take you to your goal.

"You are too negative about the past."
"Or too optimistic for our future."
"But you find so little that has been good."
"Because I feel it can become better."

"When will it?"
"When the enslaved are freed."
"Why?"
"So I will be free."

"Whom do you mean?"
"Anyone who does not harm, yet remains enchained."
"Possibly for his protection?"
"Possibly merely to enslave him."

"Who are some examples?"
"All those whom we separate without cause."
"Name some."
"All those whom we have segregated thoughtlessly."

"You would set them free?"
"So we can be free."
"Where will they go?"
"Where we go."

"But they will need help."
"Who doesn't?"
"But you said each man is alone."
"And you said he isn't."

"Then, what is the riddle?"
"First, let's find the answer."
"Which is?"
"Only a free person can be responsible for other free people."

"And the riddle?"
"Why does being free cause one to give up freedom,
"To insure his freedom,
"And to enlarge his respect for freedom?"

"Eureka!"

"Those who are enslaved cannot contribute to others."
"And, no one is completely free until all who should be are free."
"That's why leaders must follow their people."
"And the people must be free to choose leaders."

"And, to be free, man must have self-respect,
"Which requires relationships with others,
"That reinforce his freedom and dependence,
"Which again answers the riddle."

"Therefore, you call for a New Man."
"Is there another way?"
"From where will he arise?"
"Obviously, from the ranks of the enslaved."

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SAFEGUARDING THE RIGHTS AND WELFARE OF STUDENTS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF RECENT MANDATES

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Ultimately, the services which man provides to his fellowmen are based on what I would like to call his ideologies. By ideologies, I mean an interrelated web of values, attitudes, and what are believed at the moment to be facts. However, hardly ever at any time in human services will empiricism, research, and facts override the power of ideologies and the underlying values and attitudes, since what we do in human services is rarely ruled by empiricism. It is ruled by prejudices – both good and bad prejudices – but prejudices none the less. This is not altogether without its merits because human services ultimately **should** be based on values. However, these values should, of course, be consistent with whatever body of evidence we may have.

At present, changing ideologies in society are bringing about new demands on educators and on other human service providers as well. Recent court decisions are merely one manifestation of these changing ideologies. One way or another, these changes would have come about anyway, and educators who have not oriented themselves as yet to this fact will be swept aside by the underlying ideas whose time has indeed come, and whose challenges no army will be able to withstand. Specifically, and especially as regards the handicapped, the interrelated challenges which are facing educators as well as other human service workers include the following:

1. Relatively more children who are handicapped will be served than have been in the past.

2. Children who are more handicapped will be served.

3. Educators will serve both more handicapped adults, as well as adults who are more handicapped.

4. The technical sophistication of services will increase; and leisurely, condescending, watered-down, but relatively ineffective service patterns which have been so common in the past will just no longer be accepted.

5. The principle of normalization will become a major force in human service patterning, and will drive out or subsume many of

the present theories and mini-theories in education.

6. Instead of functioning in fragmented isolation, services increasingly will be provided as part of coherent systems of service.

7. Services will be provided in a large number of highly dispersed locations. By this I mean in a larger number of locations than we have been accustomed to in the past, where we often had been able to concentrate and centralize many of our services.

8. Increasingly, it will become necessary and/or expected that services will be delivered economically.

9. Because of the dynamic interrelationship among the normalization principle, the increased dispersal of locations, systemic reorganization of service delivery structures, as well as some other factors, **future services will be very, very complex.** They will pose incredibly complex planning demands, and they will lead to the failure of many individual service leaders, as well as of entire service systems.

All of this implies an uncomfortable dilemma. On the one hand, we should not, and indeed cannot, escape from the complexities and their concommitant demands; but on the other hand, these complexities have a great potential for overwhelming us. Is there a solution to this problem? If so, what is it? I submit to you that solutions will come very hard to us. There may be none other than to embrace entirely new outlooks, values, habits and reflexes of institutionalized organizational self-renewal, and to hopefully embrace these reflexes, these patterns, etc., **right now**; right now, while we still have the time and before some of these complexities engulf us like tempests — and it is very likely, very predictable, that these complexities will, in fact, be upon us before we have prepared ourselves to cope with them. And when this happens we will experience many, many failures in human service delivery patterns and systems.

John Gardner has been one of the foremost and most articulate leaders in pointing out that instituting a specific major change in an organization is difficult enough, but also not good enough. What is needed is a whole new approach to the process of change, and an institutionalization of those measures which are likely to bring about an almost self-perpetuating self-renewal — one might almost say a "change of change". A few years ago, we would not have known very much about how to do this. But now, for the first time in man's history, an extensive body of scientific knowledge does exist about the dynamics and the social psychology of organized social institutions such as educational and other service systems. For the first time in man's history, virtually any intelligent person who wishes to do so can learn how to improve the adaptive renewal of any social organization, or of the social organization to which he belongs or in which he has an interest.

The sources of this new knowledge about adaptive organizational change and self-renewal could be classified in any number of ways. I find it useful to think in terms of three such sources, although these are not mutually exclusive. One of these is decision theory. A second one is the scientific literature that has to do with the social psychology of human organizations, organizational dynamics, and so on. A lot of this material is hidden in text books on industrial psychology. A third source is systems theory.

Let us speak briefly on decision theory, as an example. I try to use decision theory in all parts of life, in everything I do, from driving a car, to scheduling my time, to planning large and expensive human service systems. What are some of the things that decision theory might have to teach us in human services? One of the implications is that it would reduce our defensiveness about our own agencies and service functioning. It is very interesting that in many of our agencies, defensiveness is almost upheld as a virtue. For example, "You never criticize your own agency" is a policy dogma in many agencies: You must believe that everybody and everything is perfect, that nothing is wrong, or that if something is wrong, it is very minor, and so on. In contrast, a very demanding self-critical approach to what one does is very rarely found and almost never institutionalized, never upheld as desirable.

One implication of decision theory would be to build evaluative research right into the functioning of every service system. We see a bit more of this today than we have in the past, but we have still a long way to go. And yet, this would be almost automatically dictated by decision theory approach, together with building a number of other change strategies and mechanisms right into the functioning of our service organization. I will say more about this later.

Another implication is the near universal application of cost-yield rationales. An example here is very fresh on my mind. In a recent school district bond issue election, school officials told the public that they should not be concerned about the increased cost of a proposed measure because this increased cost was being reimbursed ninety percent by the state, rather than being a local tax burden. This interpretation implied a gross disregard of the issue of economy — merely because somebody else was paying for the bill. But, the voters were more adaptive than the almost quasi-psychopathic school officials who took this stand, and they voted the measure down. On this issue of economy, we have been very, very deficient in our training practices. We should beat into the heads of our students in our educational training institutions that part of professional morality itself is not just getting the job done, but getting it done as economically as possible, regardless of who pays for it or where the money comes from. We could elaborate on this issue for some time, but it is just a morsel I wanted to present.

While it is relatively easy to learn the technology of self-renewal, its implementation in one's organization or one's own personal life is impossible without agony and pain. This reason is simple. **Change without pain, or at least without some sort of discomfort, is impossible.**

The more extensive are the changes that occur in our individual private lives, or in the collective organizational and public lives, the more agonizing are the stresses and the pains. And surprisingly, the reason organizations tend to act so stupidly is not merely because they are often unaware of the availability of relevant knowledge, or because change is painful, but because very few individuals genuinely internalize that pain and agony are essential to adaptation; and even yet fewer individuals have committed themselves to the necessity of seeking – and in a certain sense you might even say enjoying, or at least vibrantly embracing – those occasions of agony that bear the promise of resulting in adaptive change.

Yet, to become personal once more, that's exactly what I do in my own functioning. Several times a year I find myself getting a bit stale, and I get panicky when this happens. I find myself repeating the innovative responses that I emitted yesterday or yesteryear, and for which people may still be reinforcing me, and I get scared that I may continue to repeat these same responses, perhaps for the rest of my professional life, because it is so pleasant to be reinforced. It happens to most innovators and to people in general. I may find myself giving the same speeches, perhaps so often that I do not have time to make up new ones. (I promise you that at least half of this speech is new – for that very reason.) When this happens, this is when I seek new experiences, new crises, discomforts, confrontations, etc. – not always knowing which of these will pay off, but knowing that some will, and yet almost **all** of them will cost me dearly in terms of time, of money, sleep, discomfort, anxieties, personal upheaval, what have you. You see, that is decision theory too. You do not know where the payoff will come from, but you know that when you emit a class of responses, probabilistically, some of them pay off, but you must emit the **whole** class of responses in order to have **some** of them pay off. All you know is that the overall strategy is an adaptive one, even though some of the specific tactics or components of it will not be successful.

As many know, I have been concerned for many years with systematic as well as systems approaches in human services, and with this whole interrelated issue of organizational self-renewal, the protection of the welfare of service consumers, and the safeguarding of the quality of services. These interrelate intimately. They are very difficult to separate except, perhaps, that safeguarding the rights of the consumers (the clients of services, of students, of children, what have you) often demands more immediate mechanism of change than the concerns of long-term self-renewal for which we can often adopt long-term strategies which do not always pay off in the short run. Out of my concerns has evolved, over a period of several years, a schema of safeguards which I will present to you for the better part of this presentation (see table 1).

Now this schema is not, as I said, primarily concerned with internal self-renewal, but with those **external** measures which can be taken to monitor the quality of services and to protect the welfare of the clients of human services. Also, they are intended to be relatively universal to human services, with some minor variability in application to specific service areas such as education of the handicapped. The number of specific mechanisms that we will discuss is seventeen, and these can be divided into three major categories. Some require a public mandate, an externally imposed mandate on the part of the public on a particular service agency. A second category of safeguards are realizable through the initiative of the agency. They do not ask anybody, they do not have to beg, they can just decide they want to do it, in which case they can do it. The third category is under the control of voluntary citizen associations, such as the various private associations who work on behalf of the handicapped.

Let us look at the first category. The first mechanism is the vesting of appropriate responsibility in some kind of a speciality point. The public, usually by law, would pinpoint one agency, one office within this agency, one person, one point, whatever, as the point of responsibility for a particular problem, for a group of handicapped persons, or what have you. Quite often, this has been lacking in the past where perhaps no single office of government, state or local, may have been held responsible for a particular mission or job. So, this is very important that this be laid down by mandate, and I would say preferably by law. This measure is particularly important when we are dealing with a minority (blind persons, retarded persons, etc.) where there is a tendency to devalue

Table 1

17 EXTERNAL MONITORING MECHANISMS AND QUALITY SAFEGUARDS FOR HUMAN SERVICES

A. REQUIRING PUBLIC MANDATE (6)

  1. Responsibility vested in a "Specialty Point"
  2. Effective regulatory control
  3. Funding contingent upon externally evaluated performance
  4. Specialty services backing up general ones
  5. Institutionalization of Ombudsman System
  6. Prohibition of secret transactions

B. REALIZABLE THROUGH AGENCY INITIATIVE (8)

  7. Consumer participation in governance and committees
  8. Written individualized objectives reviewed with client
  9. Routinization of client feedback
  10. Formalization of grievance management
  11. Independent advisory committees
  12. Routine external evaluation by experts
  13. External consultancy
  14. Written agreements on program operations

C. UNDER VOLUNTARY ASSOCIATION CONTROL (3)

  15. Independent watchdog committees
  16. Systematic legal probing
  17. Citizen advocacy

this group and perhaps to escape responsibility from serving them.

The second mechanism is the exercise of effective regulatory control. This is almost self-explanatory, except the emphasis here should be on the word "effective", because regulatory rules always exist, but in many areas they exist on paper only and are poorly implemented, or not implemented at all in many crucial dimensions. So, we often have a situation where the law actually may be relatively adequate, the regulations may be quite well-intentioned and specify how the law is to be carried out, but the effectiveness the execution of the mandate, the administrative model whereby the particular measure is implemented or guided and so on is lacking. So, effective regulatory control, with the emphasis on effective, is the point here.

The third mechanism is that funding should be made contingent upon externally evaluated performance. This is a nasty proposal and it may come as a surprise to a lot of people. The recommendation is that agencies and services ought not to be funded merely because they exist, nor merely because they have the mandate, but that there be an external mechanism whereby the agency be evaluated and its funding be made contingent upon passing adequate criteria of this external evaluation. For example, we have had residential institutions for many years. They got funded no matter what they did; good or bad, they got funded because they existed. Instead, we should only fund if the services meet a certain level of quality. If they do not meet this level, funding is cut off, the funding is reallocated to other agencies, other services.

In the past, we have lacked adequate tools for assessing the quality of human services in many areas. Assessing the quality of education, for example, is very difficult particularly where there are so many theories, sub-theories, and min-theories as there are in special education as to what constitutes good and effective education. It is for this purpose that as part of our systematic approach to services, we have evolved an instrument which is called PASS (Program Analysis of Service System) which is almost like giving an IQ test to a human service. It uses universal human service principles, quantifies them so that they can be applied to almost any kind of human service, and you get a quantitative score which reflects the quality of the service being delivered. In this way you can actually compare an educational program for very young children with a vocational program for young adults, with a group home for the handicapped, with a clinic, or what have you. This is a very new instrument, and we are giving workshops in its utilization all over North America. It is catching on very, very rapidly, because it is unique and meets all urgent current needs. It was designed to give decision-makers a tool that an adequate number of experts and opinions could uphold, and which would permit them to allocate or withhold or withdraw funding from human services. Though it can be used for other purposes, that is why it was initially developed.

The first time it was applied in this fashion was in 1968 in the state of Nebraska, in order to allocate one-hundred percent of the first community services money in mental retardation. What we wanted to do was minimize political pressures in the allocation of this money, uphold high standards of service, and nurse along a very small amount on money, so as to afford the highest quality of potential services. PASS was again used for this in Nebraska in 1969, and then it was revised and universalized, and is now being considered for adoption in many localities and states. There are, of course, other ways of accomplishing the goal of external evaluation, and the major point here is that we should become tough, and link funding and performance.

A fourth mechanism is to plan for specialty services to function as a backup to generic services. This point is particularly relevant to the issue of integration of the handicapped. The principle of normalization, of course, implies integration of handicapped and devalued persons into the mainstream of things, but integration need not always be total; and in the principle of normalization, the phrase "as much as possible" is utilized. But there always has been one problem with integration, and it will continue to be a problem: fear and reluctance to integrate very handicapped children (e.g., very hperactive, profoundly retarded, or disturbed children) in the generic educational or other programs, because the generic agencies often have not been very skilled at serving these children. They may have had no experience; the staff may have been totally new to the problem and may be quite justifiably scared to death that they will not know what to do when they have to work with a very severely impaired, very problematic child, etc.

One way to relieve such fears, aside from providing training and consultancy is to give staff an assurance that should they fail in coming to grips with the problem of a particular handicapped child or adult, that all will not be lost and that they will not be left in the lurch without being able to handle the problem – which is what many generic agencies, kindergartens, Montessori schools, whatever are afraid of. They are afraid to take in the handicapped child because they cannot handle the child and do not even admit the child in the first place. If we can go to them and say that we can guarantee a backup service, let us say one specialized in child development service for handicapped children; one workshop for the handicapped in a vocational services system in which the handicapped otherwise work in integrated regular classrooms, on the workfloors, in industry, and so on; then I believe that we will get much greater compliance, much greater internalization of the ombudsman system. This system comes to us from Scandanavia, and it has a meaning there which is a little different than the way we often use the word in North America.

The ombudsman is an official who is attached to the legislative branch of government in order to give him maximum independence from the executive branch of government, and who uses his power to conduct investigations of governmental malfeasance. His powers are mostly those of investigation, and he has vast power to make public any malfeasance where it occurs. This system has worked splendidly in Scandanavia. It has been described a key to Scandanavian democracy. It has not yet worked in this fashion in North America, although it is being instituted in numerous states and even other bodies. We should see to its institutionalization as yet another safeguard, and once it is institutionalized, we should test the system. It has come to my attention that even though an ombudsman exists in a number of states, that no case has ever been carried to him of a handicapped child being denied educational services, or of being mishandled in an educational service. We will never know what the ombudsman system can do for us unless, indeed, we select test cases and carry them through this system. So first, we should support the institutionalization of the system where it does not exist; and second, push for its utilization by those persons who advocate on behalf of the impaired and handicapped or, for that matter, anybody.

The sixth safeguard should be the prohibition of secret transactions in service agencies and in service planning. It is remarkable how much secret planning goes on in human services where the almighty and all-powerful professionals cook up their plans, and then one day precipitate them upon the public or the parents on a take-it-or-leave-it basis: "you know that if you don't take it, you get nothing." How many committee meetings are secret, how many other transactions are secret? Secrecy is a blight upon society which prides itself in pluralism and democracy. It is the tool of tyranny, and certainly not consistent with a democratic approach. Yet of all human service systems, I would suspect that education systems are more guilty of secrecy than are many or most others. And that is something upon which we should deeply introspect: what compels us, what drives us to secrecy, what fears, what irrationalities; what unfounded fears and unfounded irrationalities or defensivenesses – justified defensivenesses perhaps at times – drives us to it? Transacting public affairs out in the open is painful; it is not pleasant; it is stressful. But then, as I said, you cannot have adaptation and self-renewal without these stresses.

The next group of mechanisms are realizable through agency initiative, and do not require a law. All they require is good will on the part of the agency or the service system. The first of these is consumer participation in service governance and other functions here. In educational structures, of course, we often have school boards which may be consumer-based; and we may have PTA's which however do not contribute anything, really, to meaningful consumer participation in educational affairs. Quite often we do not have, but could have, very meaningful committee structures whereby consumers can be involved in educational systems, agency systems, and so on. Consumer involvement should exist at all levels, from the governance level down to advisory committees, and what have you. Again, it is often cumbersome, not always productive, but it is a mechanism which in the long run is much more apt to be adaptive and to protect the rights and welfare of other consumers than the exclusion of such consumer participation.

The next mechanism is utilization of written individualized objectives for clients, reviewed, if at all possible, with the client. In the past, we have gotten away with murder (e.g., "death at an early age"). You remember the Educational Policies Commission's so-called SHEC goals for the education of the retarded: beautiful vague words about self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, civic responsibility, and things of this nature. Under these vague generalities upon which everybody could agree we were able to hide anything, literally everything. The most watered-down baby-sitting you could think of could be hidden under it. Well, this just is not good enough! We should specify realistic and highly specified objectives we want to accomplish in a specific year, semester, or term, or whatever, with a specific child. We should write these down and discuss them if not with the consumer, then with the consumer representative: the parent. And if we find that we shoot too high, then next term we shoot lower; if we shot too low, then we can shoot higher; but we should know what we are talking about. This would be a very powerful safeguard if it were universally adopted.

Ninthly, comes the routinization of client feedback. By this I mean, not feedback to the client, but feedback from the client. This may not be possible when you are dealing with very young children, or perhaps when you are dealing with a retarded person, but it is possible in many instances to give the client, and in all instances the parent, to systematically rate, to respond to, to evaluate, the services received. PASS, mentioned earlier, involves an outside evaluation by outside experts of the system as a whole. This is quite different from what I mean here, where the individual client on an ad hoc basis can rate the way that he has experienced the service. This is, of course, particularly important when we are dealing with adults or young adults of good mentality. There is no reason why they should not be able to rate us the way we rate them; there should be no one-way street. Now when you are a teacher, it is unpleasant if your students rate you. Yet, this is exactly the kind of painful mechanism that can be exceedingly adaptive: to be told that you are a lousy lecturer, that you are ill-prepared, that you do not know your material, and so on. Of course, there are also other ways of rating other things, such as the courtesy with which one is received, the promptness with which one is served, things of this nature. This opportunity to evaluate should be available to the client of the service on the spot, maybe every time he is served. Before he walks out the door, there is a paper and pencil and he sits down and rates – and the stuff is not thrown into the wastebucket but is read, tabulated, and utilized.

The next mechanism is formalization of grievance management. Every service system should have written procedures as to what a client may do if he is dissatisfied. Who can he go to? How can he complain? If he does not get satisfaction, who does he go to next? What are his routes of appeal and recourse, and so on? I wonder how many are involved in a school system in which a parent receives reflexively, routinely, at the beginning of a school year or something like this, a written procedure that tells him what his grievance recourses and grievance management procedures are? Typically, this practice is quite rare.

Now, just think about that. Isn't that scandalous? Isn't it scandalous that public educators are leaving the voter, the taxpayer, without any knowledge of what he is to do when he is not satisfied with a service that you as a public official handed to him? Is that the kind of society that we want? Is that consistent with the ideals that we pay lip service to?

Independent advisory committees are another mechanism. The agency, the service, the school, sets them up, but the chairman should be independent; he calls the meetings to order, he says where the meeting takes place and what will be the agenda, and not the superintendent or the principal. Then the committee can offer advice, and should be **asked** for advice. The advice can be rejected; that's fine, because there are other avenues and other recourses whereby input cannot be rejected. I will go into this later when I talk about redundancy of safeguard mechanisms. At the very least, we should have this type of advisory input, the take-it-or-leave-it type. This relates to the whole issue of consumer participation in public services where we really should make a commitment to such participation, at all levels, in **as many ways** as possible.

The twelfth mechanism is similar to the third one, except it is at a lower level. If you have number three (funding based on performance), you do not need number twelve, because number twelve is contained in number three. But it is hard to get number three. Many services will never get that far, or only years hence. So instead, at the very least, we should have – and we should have it on our own school initiative – outside expert evaluation. We should go out and bring in experts to evaluate us, to assess us, even if once more it is on a take-it-or-leave-it basis. We can throw away the written reports we get, but at least the reports exist, and chances are that if enough school systems and programs and schools do it, a great deal of value will, in fact, be transmitted, accepted, utilized, and so on.

The next mechanism is external consultancy. This is different from number twelve. An expert comes in and evaluates, and he comes and goes twice a year, or once a year, or every three years, or something. But external consultancy involves an on-going consulting relationship that calls on expertise outside of the system, and which relates to the same system over a long period of time. There is much to be said for such prolonged outside consultancy versus the one-shot expert evaluation. Of course, we should have both. We can have our regular, once a year evaluation where a team of experts come in, and it could be different experts every year or a rotating membership or something. In addition, we can have locally available a number of consultants who come in and make recommendations. And I mean not just consultants who consult with problems, how to handle a specific child or whatever, but consultants to the system, to the service, the quality of the services as a whole.

Mechanism fourteen is written agreements on program operations. This one is particularly relevant where we are integrating handicapped persons into a generic program; and it is really important to make sure that when the handicapped person is integrated, that the quality of services he receives is high and that he is not merely dumped and forgotten. Too many people think integration is just dumping. Integration was never meant to be dumping. Integration, by definition, was meant to be an adaptive, supportive process. Now when we go to generic agencies, generic systems, and so on, and we ask them to service children who have problems, or adults who have severe problems, one of the dangers is how to safeguard their rights, their welfare, and so on, so they do not just get shoved aside or put in a back room to sit there and get babysat, or something like this. Aside from having effective regulations, outside assessment, consultancy, and things like this, we need to have written agreements as to just what a generic agency will do and will not do when they integrate handicapped persons. This may often involve the form of a contract where the specialty point I spoke of earlier (it could be the State Office of Mental Retardation or something of this nature) may contract with a generic service, such as a Montessori school, to accept five or ten handicapped children among their now handicapped children, and spell out what the school will and will not do. For this, they may get funding, some purchase of service with quality safeguards agreed upon and monitored.

Current ideology tells us that we must integrate; the law may even tell us that we must integrate; and a great deal of lip service is being given to integration. But without adequate safeguards, integration will fail! I have absolutely no doubt about this whatever, and it is terribly important to those of you who are leaders in this area to strongly internalize the necessity, the **absolute necessity to build in the safeguards that assure that integration will succeed**. Should integration fail because it has been practiced as dumping, you know what everybody will say. They will say that everybody knew it would fail, it had to fail, the public is not ready to integrate the handicapped and retarded and this type and that type of child, etc., and we will have to go back to segregated classes, segregated schools, and so on. Of course, a lot of people want that to happen, just that; they want integration to fail. And like I say, it will fail, their wish will come true, they may even contribute to its coming true consciously or unconsciously – unless we build in quality safeguards.

The next three safeguards are under the control of the voluntary sector outside of the agencies, outside the schools, outside the systems. One of these is the establishment of independent watchdog committees. These are similar to advisory committees, except that they can be set up whether or not an agency likes it. An external body, volunteer associations, such as associations for retarded citizens, maybe U.C.P.'s, Easter Seals, etc., which could set up committees which should look over the shoulders of schools and other service systems, (and there is no way in which we can prevent it by law, thank goodness) and monitor these services. It would require the cooperation of the school system to admit such committees into the schools and to various business operations and so on, but there are some things which the service systems do not have the power to approve or disapprove. Hopefully, of course, these committees will be identical to voluntarily established advisory committees, but should the system fail to set up such advisory committees, then private voluntary action groups should set up their watchdog committees instead. It is your choice; which shall we have? Shall we participate from within, or shall it be imposed upon us from without? By the way, more and more private voluntary organizations are leaving the field of direct service provision; they are getting out of business more and more. Even some of the Easter Seals and other groups are getting out of the service-providing business, and they will be looking for a new role. The new role which they will adopt, to a large degree, will be monitoring through mechanisms such as discussed here. We must anticipate this, of course, or it might again result in one of those nasty confrontations that might have been avoided, that were avoidable, and that should have been avoided.

The sixteenth mechanism is systematic litigative probing. We have seen quite a bit of this lately. It is a mechanism that is in the hands of any citizen. Any citizen can enter a suit. He may not be right, but it makes no difference. He has the power to do it.

Finally, a seventeenth mechanism is citizen advocacy. Citizen advocacy is a system whereby an unpaid competent citizen volunteer, with the support of an independent citizen advocacy agency, represents, as if they were his own, the interests of one or two impaired persons by means of one or several or many advocacy forms: formal, informal, legal, non-legal, and so on. Some of these may possibly last for life. This type of advocacy is different from many kinds of advocacies we hear a lot about, because the volunteer here is a volunteer to a person, the citizen advocacy agency is an independent agency, and the volunteer is **not** a volunteer to it. It is merely a brokerage outfit, you might say, and the person who is represented is a person who does not have adequate representation.

These may be children from very inadequate homes, homeless children, maybe a child or an adult in an institution, nursing home, or prison; infants; and on and on like this. Where a person is severely impaired, this special relationship may last for life. It might take the form of a guardianship, or merely be informal.

Citizen advocacy was initiated only four years ago. Already there are 60 offices in operation, including offices at the State and provincial levels. Ohio now has ten such offices; Pennsylvania, eight; Colorado, close to ten; and so on. For more information on this or other above topics you may write to me (805 S. Grouse, Syracuse, N.Y. 13210) and we will send you materials.

In conclusion, I want to make five points. The concept of checks and balances and the necessary process which is implied in many of these safeguards which I talked about may be a bit alien to some people, a bit distressful. But like I say, unless we make life hard for ourselves, we are not able to marshall the necessary momentum and initiative for self-renewal. Also, many of the safeguards and mechanisms which I skimmed over already exist to various degrees and in various localities, but many of these proposed measures will accomplish different things. You may ask, why seventeen? Why wouldn't one or two of them be enough? Different mechanisms accomplish quite different things, and are powerful in quite different situations and circumstances. A major goal should be not merely to implement one, two, or a few of these mechanisms, but as many as possible.

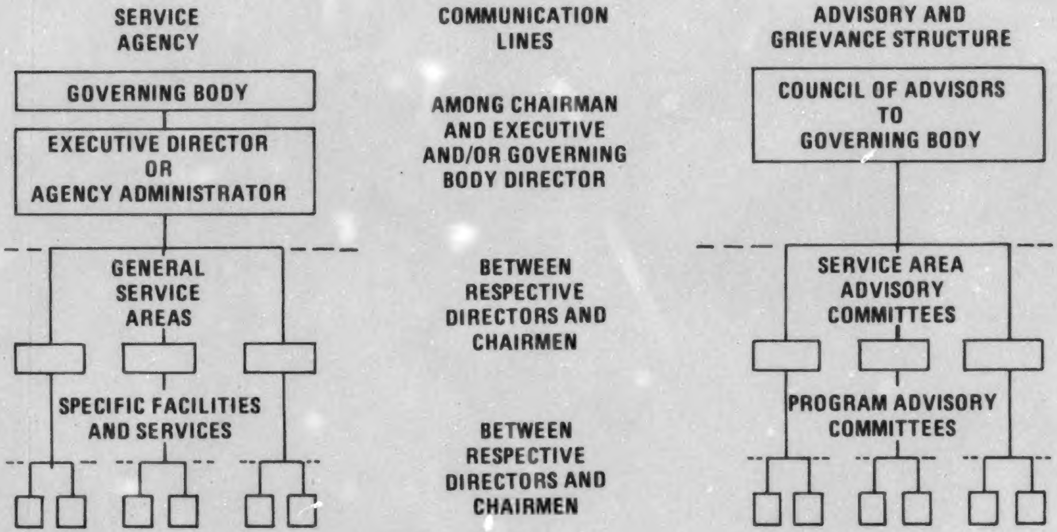
Why? So that there is built-in a certain amount of extra insurance and overlap into the system, at least a moderate amount of what I like to call "safeguard redundancy." For after all, these are human systems. Human systems are weak; they come and they go. When one goes, you don't want to be stripped down to none. When one goes, you want to have others to be there. And also, they come and go, not merely their existence but also in their relevance and their strength at a particular point in time.

Even some safeguards that appear to be very similar should be permitted to co-exist. For instance, the fact that a service agency may have a significant proportion of consumer representatives on its governing board in no way diminishes the need for other consumer representatives to function in an advisory capacity, or vice versa. One of the reasons being that when a consumer becomes, let us say, a member of the board of governors, he becomes a different person. The office, the mandate, picks him up, and he becomes an official representative of the agency and he will do things which are quite different from what he would have done when he was an outside advisor, and vice versa. This is why consumers must be both identified with the agency and its governance, if at all possible, as well as having input in other ways and at other levels of service. Nor should the benefits of immediate client feedback in regard to the specific service received be equated with the function of an advisory body which provides advice over a long period of time in regard to services in general, rather than regarding specific clients or incidents.

The next major point is that some of the monitoring safeguards can be combined in a rather effective fashion. For instance, the formalization of a grievance management process, the establishment of independent advisory committees, and the establishment of independent watchdog committees could be combined in a single committee structure. This would have many advantages. For one thing,

Table 2

A PROPOSED ADVISORY AND GRIEVANCE COMMITTEE STRUCTURE TO PUBLIC SERVICE SYSTEMS


SERVICE AGENCY
GOVERNING BODY
EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR OR AGENCY ADMINISTRATOR
GENERAL SERVICE AREAS
SPECIFIC FACILITIES AND SERVICES
COMMUNICATION LINES
AMONG CHAIRMAN AND EXECUTIVE AND/OR GOVERNING BODY DIRECTOR
BETWEEN RESPECTIVE DIRECTORS AND CHAIRMEN
BETWEEN RESPECTIVE DIRECTORS AND CHAIRMEN
ADVISORY AND GRIEVANCE STRUCTURE
COUNCIL OF ADVISORS TO GOVERNING BODY
SERVICE AREA ADVISORY COMMITTEES
PROGRAM ADVISORY COMMITTEES

it would be very efficient and conserve a great deal of the leadership manpower that many of these mechanisms would require. One way in which such a system could be established is illustrated in table 2. This again is a universal model; the service agency could be a school, or some other service system. A service agency usually is subdivided at its highest level.

There is maybe a school board and a superintendent; then there is usually an intermediate level such as maybe a particular school, or vocational services, preschool services, special education, what have you. Finally, then it has its specific facilities and services, such as a specific classroom, or category or maybe a grade level, or something like this. One of the dogmas of organizational dynamics is that you have to fight complexity with complexity, so you might establish a safeguard committee structure that is just as complex as the services system. The three mechanisms under voluntary control, citizen advocacy is especially important. Systematic litigative probing you use very rarely. One lawsuit might get the system to think about what else might happen, and make it a little more reformist. Watchdog committees can be extremely limited if the service system does not cooperate. They cannot be rendered totally ineffective, but they can certainly be thwarted. This leaves citizen advocacy, and it is a safeguard par excellence for persons at any rate, as well as being a safeguard for systems, a safeguard for both.

Almost all of the proposed safeguards are applicable, not only in the field of handicapped, but in human services generally; not only in the field of education but virtually anywhere. However — and I want to commend this to your hearts warmly — safeguards are particularly needed to protect any group of persons, any person or group of persons, that is devalued by society.

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part II legislation and litigation

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE COURTS

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While there are many ways to begin examining the legal reform movement, I would like to begin this paper by looking at the present status of what has been called the litigation "business." In early November of last year when we did our last count of the number of right to education lawsuits that have been filed or completed we found forty-two suits in twenty-six states. I also know of four additional states in which serious consideration and preliminary work is occurring regarding the bringing of suit. Thus, we are now talking about a phenomena that has already directly affected over half the country.

Since January of this year when the Council for Exceptional Children prepared another yellow-covered book (those of you familiar with our clearinghouse projects recognize that everything we do is in yellow, and there is no special meaning to that), *A Continuing Summary of Pending and Completed Litigation Regarding the Education of Handicapped Children,* which is a compendium of all the litigation, ten new cases had been filed. This gives you some idea of the speed with which all of this is happening.

A second way of looking at the movement is to consider how it has changed since it began. The title of this article contains the word "recent" and although the entire right to education litigative effort is recent, perhaps no older than two and one-half to three years, it has and is changing substantially.

First the suits today are more sophisticated both conceptually and legally. This has occurred in part because with experience comes sophistication, but also because more sophisticated defenses are being encountered in the states. We have even heard that the attorneys general of some of the states under suit have been talking to each other. Additionally the Supreme Court decision in the Rodriguez school finance case which I will briefly discuss has had some impact that has forced more sophistication.

A second difference is that at the beginning of the movement, and perhaps slightly preceding it, were a series of lawsuits designed to correct misclassification and inappropriate placement procedures. Less of those cases are now being seen in isolation since the issues involved are so closely related to right to education, they are being incorporated into the latter suits.

Third, the suits are no longer being brought on behalf of single categories of handicapped children but rather are encompassing all categories in single actions.

Fourth, although you can't generalize from a single state, in Kentucky, the Federation of The Council for Exceptional Children, the state level professional organization of The Council for Exceptional Children, has entered into a right to education lawsuit as a named plaintiff. Equally interesting, I think, is that they are one of eight organized groups sufficiently concerned with this issue to file suit. Kentucky suggests a couple of things: One, that professionals and professional groups are beginning to step forward and become directly involved in the litigation movement. Kentucky also points to an emerging new set of relationships that have resulted in this instance in a formal marriage between parent groups and professional groups, old adversaries.

Fifth, in the beginning there were many special education administrators who resisted the lawsuits like death, or at least plague. Many educational administrators, of the special education variety, are now welcoming them. This metamorphosis has occurred because of recognition that favorable decisions can provide a very effective lever to pry general education administrators and policy making bodies to let you do all those things that you have wanted to do all along.

Finally, and it really isn't finally, but I can't exhaust this at this writing, the litigation movement has brought about recognition that today in the U.S. there is more than one system of education being provided for handicapped children. Perhaps you are familiar with the dual, three, four, or five-system effort where some children simply are taken away from the responsibility of public education and given to another public or private agency. That has now been exposed and corrective measures are in process.

A third approach to assessing where we are in terms of right to education is that the type of attorneys involved in these suits has changed substantially over time. You may recall, perhaps from hearing or seeing some of these gentlemen, and the one who comes most to mind in portraying the image is one Stan Herr, who was co-counsel in the **Mills** case in the District of Columbia. Stan Herr's name was really quite appropriate because he has hair that was all over his face and head, truly in the style of the "great society" poverty lawyer. The contrast was apparent at a meeting I attended a few weeks ago in Chicago at which all the attorneys involved in pending right to education lawsuits were brought together. The group was remarkably different, in fact, someone characterized them as being "establishment". I think that essentially that was an accurate observation and I think it is important because it suggests legitimization of the litigative effort. It is apparent to attorneys that it makes good legal and economic sense to bring right to education lawsuits.

A fourth indicator of the status of the right to education effort is represented by meetings such as this one where the focus is the education of all children. In addition, there have been incredible spinoffs relating to legal change for the education of handicapped children. For example, Governor Bond of Missouri, when asked some time ago on nationwide television about his priorities for spending in the state, indicated that "Many of our special children in Missouri don't have access to special education services, and I think that this is – morally this is wrong, and I think maybe the children may even have a constitutional right to this education, so we want to put many more dollars into that." Another example comes from Pennsylvania which when Hurricane Agnes struck, really demolished much of the state and in particular Harrisburg, the capital. There were only two offices that remained open during that crisis, one was the Office of Emergency Preparedness and the other was the Right to Education Office, which suggests just how Governor Shapp felt about this issue. New special education laws and regulations have taken clear direction from the orders and decisions that have derived from Right to Education lawsuits.

It is useful at this point to turn to four specific cases that I think have special importance and I believe suggest some future considerations.

I will not discuss **PARC** or **Mills** since I feel that by now most are quite familiar with those early landmark cases. The first case is **Lebanks v. Spears** in Louisiana. This case focused on the denial of education and the absence of appropriate placement and assessment procedures or due process applying to allegedly mentally retarded children. It was much like all the other right to education cases. It was concluded in April with a consent order, which means there was agreement on the part of the parties bringing the suit and the parties who were named as defendants in the suit with the approval of the court. I want to just cover a few of the major points in that agreement. The first relates to the concept of normalization.

The agreement calls for implementation of what has been termed the least restrictive alternative concept. The order specifies that "All evaluations and educational plans, hearings, and determinations of appropriate programs of education and training . . . shall be made in the context of a presumption that among alternative programs and plans, placement in a regular public school class with the appropriate support services is preferable to placement in special public school classes," and so on.

To contribute to the maintenance of the child in programs as close to the norm as possible, the order requires that all children being considered for placement in a program for the mentally retarded must be given an evaluation, periodic review, and an individual education plan.

Third, the order specifies that free public programs of education and training appropriate to the age and mental status of mentally retarded children must be provided for all such children. And finally, in an area that the field has not really yet begun discussing from an implementation point of view, from a teacher training point of view, or from any point of view, is that "Educational and training opportunities will be made available to persons resident of the Orleans parish over twenty-one years of age who were not provided educational services when children." Is this compensatory education? Adult education? What form of education is called for and where should it be delivered and for how long are questions that are just now beginning to be asked.

The second major case is one that really didn't involve the handicapped at all, and that is a very important point to remember when talking about it. Of particular reference is an article from *Exceptional Children*, "The Supreme Court and the Suspect Class," which deals with a case called the **San Antonio Independent School District v. Rodriguez**. This case which dealt with alleged disparities in the distribution of state financial aid to school districts in Texas received wide attention. The extensive attention occurred because the finance issue has possible implications for the nation. But it also drew a lot of interest from those involved with right to education for handicapped children because the Supreme Court seemed to say that there was no right, there was no constitutional right, to an education.

Because of the potentially disastrous implications of the decision for the handicapped, much analysis was done. The tone of the analysis suggests that the decision may actually work in favor of the handicapped. This conclusion is based on the following four points.

First, Rodriguez was a federal decision in a federal court on a question arising under the United States Constitution. In no sense does its result affect state judicial decisions on state law. While state constitutions may have equal protection clauses, nothing prevents their courts from applying more favorable interpretations than did Rodriguez, and, in fact, this happened in New Jersey.

Second, since no reasonable state purpose can be achieved by denying children an education because of being handicapped, the practice of excluding children from schools fails to meet what the attorneys call the rational basis test, which is a test applied by the courts to determine if the state law in question has a reasonable relation to a state activity. Most states are committed by constitution and statute to an adequate or appropriate or suitable education for all children. Consequently, any practice that excludes children from education bears no rational relationship to this commitment, and therefore, according to the attorneys, would be an unconstitutional denial of equal protection.

Third, by and large when handicapped children are excluded from public education, their only recourse is to attend a private program and their ability to do so is dependent almost totally, for the majority, on parental wealth. In the Rodriguez case, the challenge involved the relative adequacy of the education of children residing in poorer school districts that received less state aid. The plaintiffs in right to education lawsuits, however, don't question or haven't really questioned relative adequacy. They have questioned absolute deprivation. In his opinion, Justice Powell noted that every plaintiff had been afforded the basic minimal skills needed for effective speech and informed franchise. But our point is that if one looked hard enough, it would be possible, I think, to find children who have been totally barred from participation in public education, and thus, have no opportunity to obtain what the court felt was minimum education.

Finally, the alleged discrimination was against the poor and the poorer school districts. The court said that the classes in the legal sense presented in the case were too large and diverse to be considered suspect. The class of the handicapped, however, in right to education litigation does not have a problem of identity. The court said that the plaintiffs in Rodriguez lacked these kind of criteria for being defined as suspect. "Being saddled with such disabilities or subjected to such a history of purposeful unequal treatment or relegated to such a position of political powerlessness as to command extraordinary protection from the majoritarian political process."

Do those criteria describe a class of people you are familiar with? To me, it sounds like the court very effectively described handicapped children excluded from public education.

I think it is of interest and perhaps of practical value to quote part of the dissenting opinion of Justice Marshall, "In my judgment, the right of every American to an equal start in life so far as the provision of a state's service as important as education is concerned, is far too vital to permit state discrimination on grounds as tenuous as those presented here. Nor can I accept the notion that it is sufficient to remit these appellees to the vagaries of the political process which, contrary to the majority suggestion, has proven singularly unsuited to the task of providing a remedy for this discrimination. I for one am unsatisfied with the hope of an ultimate political solution sometime in the indefinite future while in the meantime countless children unjustifiably receive inferior educations that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely to ever be undone."

The third case that should be cited is called **Case v. State of California**. The action was brought on behalf of Lori Case. It is difficult to reference this case because the child in question is named Lori Case, so I'll be citing the Case case, so don't get confused.

Lori Case is an autistic child who may also possess a hearing handicap. It's not clear exactly what the appropriate diagnosis of this child should be. However, operating under the assumption that she is in fact multiple handicapped, she was enrolled for a period of time in a special state operated program of education for multiple handicapped children. After a period of time, it was decided that she could no longer profit from that situation. Her parents contested the action in a class suit which was brought in California Superior Court. The Court, after listening to the various arguments, decided that the child was in fact incapable of learning and, therefore, could no longer profit from that program and should perhaps be placed in an institution. That language and decision represented a setback in the right to education movement because it is our position that all children do have the right to education and, most important, that all children can learn. For that reason a new definition of education has been advanced – education is a continuous process of developing life skills needed for effective coping with developmental tasks and demands as well as with environmental tasks and demands. By using this definition many of the activities we have been doing in special education for some time for more **severely** handicapped children and will be doing for more **severely** handicapped children in the near future are quite legitimate. What the California court did, however, was to set aside that broad definition and use a more narrow concept.

The forces working on this case have not let it die and are appealing it. The Council for Exceptional Children, the National Association for Mental Health, the National Association for Autistic Children, and the National Center for Law and the Handicapped will be presenting an amicus curiae brief to serve as a friend of the court stressing that in fact, every child can learn and has that right.

The final case I want to reference is called **Peter Doe v. San Francisco Unified School District**. This case also has been filed in California and involved an eighteen year old high school graduate, who has sued the state and public schools in San Francisco for more than a million dollars. Essentially, the suit has been brought because, although Peter Doe graduated, he can only read at the fifth grade level. Consequently he claims that he was deprived of an education in the basic skills of reading and writing as a result of the acts and omissions of the public school defendants.

The suit has four general areas of actions. Let me just read some of the language to you: negligence, misrepresentation, breach of statutory duties, and constitutional deprivation of the right to education. Most interesting is the allegation presented in the complaint that since graduation from high school, he received tutorial instruction and made significant progress in his ability to read.

Let me put this case and issue into some perspective. The attorney, who has been involved in a number of these cases, said that **Peter Doe** is "simply a forerunner of an effort on the part of parents and citizens to bring to focus through the judicial system attention upon the fact that schools, the educational systems in this society, have failed in some way to provide the Peter Does of this country with the kind of education to which they are entitled.

Up to this point, I haven't said much about adequacy, about minimal education, and not too many other people have either. Yet there has been some attention although minimal by the courts in right to education lawsuits to this area. In the **Harrison** right to education suit, which was dismissed in Michigan, the court made reference to the state's new statute which said that, "A special education plan must be implemented which will provide for the delivery of special education programs and services designed to develop the maximum potential of every handicapped person."

In **Mills**, the court said that the District of Columbia shall provide each child of school age a free and suitable publicly supported education, regardless of the degree of the child's mental, physical, or emotional disability or impairment. The court went on to say that the board of education has an obligation to provide whatever specialized instruction that will benefit the child. I think it is this issue of appropriateness or suitability which **Peter Doe** addresses.

This, I think, brings us to the next area of concern that we should all know of, which may or may not become a major litigative issue. These days much attention is being paid to the courts and lawyers and I think we must recognize that we invited the lawyers in and they've led us, and they've opened up some interesting doors, and are continuing to pursue some interesting approaches to getting at the questions of suitability which I want to describe to you. They, like us, are very concerned that even in the presence of court decrees, consent orders, appropriate law, rules and regulations, there are still some children who are not going to be served appropriately, perhaps for some good reasons, like no money, which is a good reason, but which is of course not acceptable. We know that there are still going to be kids sitting in the principal's office day in and day out because they never get a chance to get an education. Some people say that due process procedures that you are all now familiar with will prevent all this from happening. Paul Dimond, who was one of the attorneys in **Lebanks**, says that, "At this point in time the issue of whether such fair procedure will insure adequate education remains, frankly, untested. We can be reasonably sure, however, that such procedure operating in lock-step with the right to some education, a la Rodriguez, will serve as a prophylactic against the worse education malpractices."

Merle McClung is another attorney working at the Harvard Center for Law and Education that has been instrumental for some time in this whole area. He has, as answers, three legal approaches for assuring adequate education or, as he phrases it, minimally adequate education, that are worth examining.

McClung begins by talking about the equal protection argument and says that the right to an education is more than simply access, it means that the program provided must be, in fact, educational. And secondly, that the education that is provided must, in some way, be similar or equal to that provided to normal children. At the same time he makes very clear, as did Tom Gilhool, the attorney in PARC, that simply taking a handicapped child and placing that child in a regular program where he cannot learn is tantamount to excluding the child from school. McClung's thesis is essentially that equality must be seen as adequacy and the concept be looked at not in terms of absolute measurements, but rather in relation to the benefits provided to distinct classes or groups of children. Thus you have a definition of equality that would go: equal access to unequal resources to produce unequal outputs. Thus, adequacy becomes a relative rather than an absolute concept.

Despite problems of measurement and/or agreement, we can look at the goals of public education for normal children, nonhandicapped children, and can see that there is a concept of a minimally adequate education that suggests certain kinds of core experiences in certain subject areas. As educators, we say that when students have acquired these minimal competencies, they are, in fact, educated, perhaps only minimally, but at least educated. The argument then becomes, don't the schools have an equal responsibility to provide a minimally adequate education for handicapped children even though what constitutes minimally adequate for them may be different?

Although little mention has been made in this article about the right to treatment lawsuits, they are occurring although not in as great a number as in education. They focus on institutions for the mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed and they advance the argument that persons involuntarily committed to an institution demand the responsibility of government to deliver some services. McClung uses that same argument and says that like those involuntarily confined to state institutions, school-age children, because of compulsory school laws, are involuntarily confined to public schools. Since this concept implies the right to a minimally adequate treatment for the involuntarily committed, McClung continues and says that the right to education implies the right to minimally adequate education, thus justifying the involuntary confinement. The application of these two particular theories and the continued involvement of the lawyers suggest that standards are going to be needed. We are going to have to determine **what it is we are supposed to do** and, as has been so well asked by Reynolds, Wolfensberger and Blatt,* **how well are we doing it?**

Finally, McClung talks about state law and regulations as being a basis for attorneys to build on when looking for continued attacks on the legal structure to obtain minimally adequate education experiences for handicapped children. This clearly represents a viable approach since as I mentioned earlier, most of the states have either in statues or in their constitutions words like appropriate, beneficial, needs suited, or proper regarding the education to be provided by their schools. McClung says that, "If the various statutory provisions do not create a right to an adequate education in themselves, lawyers could argue that the relationship between the state and local programs with its numerous written agreements constitutes a contract which the handicapped child can enforce as a third party beneficiary."

There have been, by the way, two lawsuits pre-Rodriguez in state courts where school districts have been found "guilty," I suppose one could use that term, of not providing an appropriate education for two individual handicapped children, one in New York and the other in Connecticut. In both cases, the children went on to private school, profited from the education received there. Also in both cases, the court required that the school district and/or the state pay the cost of that private education.

Before concluding I want to make another important point. The title of part of this document is legislation and litigation. Yet those

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See this volume, page 93 for Reynolds, page 49 for Wolfensberger, and page 15 for Blatt articles.

are but two of at least four avenues that can be used to bring about legal change for the education of the handicapped. I think all too often, as has been very clear in other contributions to this volume, the potential for changing rules and regulations, policies, guidelines, standards or whatever they are called, where you are from is left unexplored. Yet in some states changes in the regulatory base can achieve great goals with less dramatics, less cost, less time, and with less trouble and anxiety than going to court.

Another legal avenue for change that we have not yet explored at all is state attorney general opinions, which interpret law. We don't know a great deal what force these actually have, but we do know that frequently state and local administrators accept attorney generals opinions as being law, or having the force of law, and consequently, begin changing behaviors to conform with such decisions. Most interesting is that the right to education litigative and legislative movement which has been reinforced in rules and regulations in some states has also caused some attorneys general in other states to rule on whether or not their states are in keeping with these new constitutional directions. As an example in Arkansas, where a law was recently passed requiring full service for all children by 1980, the attorney general ruled, "No, not 1980, now!" We at CEC are studying state attorneys general rulings and will have a publication out, hopefully within a few months, summarizing these rulings across the states and also having some indication how they are perceived in value by practitioners and also what force of law they actually carry.

Recognition of all these avenues is particularly important because maximum pressure must still be brought by all of us and our allies on all fronts to achieve effective implementation, even in the presence of favorable laws, regulations, etc. Clearly, the education of handicapped children is still seen by many school people as an afterthought to be taken care of later. One of the attorneys in **Mills** said that the case gave public acknowledgment and judicial support to the claim that educational needs were being unmet but that it was not sufficient impedence to secure dramatically altered bureaucratic behavior. Another attorney also said that in the final analysis implementation is largely dependent upon the understanding and cooperation of school men in the field and particularly principals. Thus, the call to action spans through the federal, state, and local levels of government. The greater the ability to generate pressure on all levels using all avenues the greater the likelihood of services to children.

To put all of this into perspective, I want to conclude with a quote from John Dewey who, although not of recent times, certainly laid out some very important messages for us, because as he viewed American education, it was to value each child as equally an individual and entitled to equal opportunity of development of his own capacities, be they large or small in range . . . Each has needs of his own as significant to him as those of others are to them. The very fact of natural and psychological inequality is all the more reason for establishment by law of equality of opportunity, since otherwise the former becomes a means of oppression of the less gifted."

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RECENT LEGISLATIVE DEVELOPMENTS

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It is often the practice in discussing issues to accentuate the negative and eliminate the positive. I, too, am afraid that my position does not break with tradition. But let me preface with my strong belief that you in special education are doing a good job. Across the country there are many handicapped children who are receiving opportunities for life and education that they would not otherwise be receiving if it were not for the efforts of creative special educators around the nation.

Special education has changed a great deal in the last decade and is moving more vibrantly than any other segment in American education. I think that is important because what has been said in this volume can be perceived as a condemnation of what has been done and what we are doing. Rather, it should be seen as a call for us to keep moving ahead and do better than the job we are now doing. That movement and self-criticism is what keeps our field vibrant and exciting and what will make us, tomorrow, better than we are today. I hope you will take these remarks within that context.

What is being discussed in these papers, while words such as litigation, legislation, regulation, and attorney's general opinions have been used, is public policy. I hope, however, we also see public policy as being much broader than just those avenues of change. But public policy is also the more subtle procedures we use for determining the relationships between our schools and the children we serve or do not serve. Marty Martinson has described conflicts of policy when we talk on the one hand about young adults having the right to vote, but on the other hand, needing a pass to go to the lavatory. The requirement for a pass to go to the lavatory is a public policy that we as educators establish. I think that the critical issue for us to consider is that the answer to policy problems facing exceptional children is not totally in the state capitol, but a good bit of the answer is in our classrooms, schools, communities and ourselves.

I would like to delineate five elements of public policy. What it is that public policy does and particularly those elements of public policy that are important and crucial to the lives of exceptional children. (And then to share briefly with you what it is that we can do, you and I, to improve public policy.)

The first thing that public policy does is determine the degree to which minorities, in this case the handicapped, will be treated inequitably by the controlling majority. It is my basic assumption that in our world, particularly in this country, the minority, whoever they may be, aged, handicapped, racial minorities, or economic minorities, will always be treated or live with the threat of being treated inequitably by the majority. Certainly, this was the premise of the civil rights movement which forced public policy to recognize that we have classes of individuals in our society for whom the majority, controlling majority, not numerical majority, (women in this country are the numerical majority yet they are not the controlling majority) treat with minority status. The purpose of the Bill of Rights is to protect the minority from abuse by the majority. Thus, the handicapped are asking for no more than that which other minorities have historically asked.

Perhaps the most important part of the Constitution, or at least it has become one of the most important parts of the Constitution since 1954, is the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment, which guarantees to people equal protection of the laws. Basically what that means is what you do for some you must do for all on equal terms. You cannot set up separate systems and separate ways of dealing with some people than you deal with others unless you can demonstrate a compelling cause. The Warren Court, in the 50's and early 60's, expanded the equal protection concept and used it as a major tool for social justice. The Burger Court has been trying to place more constraints on equal protection, but the expansion and importance of the Fourteenth Amendment is now very ingrained in the fabric of American justice.

We have, since the 60's, in education, believed in the term equal educational opportunity. The concept is not new to education, but has changed significantly over the years. Initially it was a populist concept characterized by Tom Watson in the following manner. "Close no entrance to the poorest, the weakest, the humblest. Say to ambition everywhere, the field is clear, the contest fair; come, and win your share if you can!" Thus, education became a race, or a free for all where everyone had equal access to its resources and equal opportunity to meet or fail to meet its objectives.

In the 60's we moved to what Coleman and others describe as the compensatory period, which said to those in the race, but who could not run, "We'll give you crutches, we'll give you remedial reading, we'll give you help to run the race." Thus the maximum became equal access to differing resources for equal objectives, with everybody still coming out the same in the end. I believe the right to education suits for the handicapped and the whole movement today will not only have a profound affect upon the handicapped, but, will produce a revolutionary concept for American education. That is, equal access to differing resources for differing objectives. In other words, we are moving to individualized education. We are moving to education where objectives of education are established, negotiated and determined in terms of each individual. And thus, the resources, by definition, must be different for each individual. So the notion that schools provide fixed programs for most children, and for those children who differ, they get another kind of fixed program, such as a program for the mentally retarded, will not be sound for the 70's, 80's and the future of education.

Let me reinforce my contention that the handicapped are a minority. The handicapped for a substantial period of time will continue to be abused by the majority and, thus, our policies must be protective of the handicapped to prevent their abuse. Education is only one area in which these abuses take place. We are now doing some work with the Federal Aviation Agency; there are policies on our airlines which prohibit the mentally retarded from flying. There are policies on our airlines which allows the person at the ticket desk to say to a physically handicapped person, "You shall not fly on our airlines." This past year, with the passage of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, a number of us looked very carefully at vocational rehabilitation, a program specifically set up to help the "handicapped," and yet we saw flagrant discriminatory practices in excluding the handicapped from vocational rehabilitation services. Why? Because certain handicapped individuals presented greater threat to the system. They were more difficult to serve. Thus, the system excluded them. There is certainly also discrimination in housing and in employment. I think what we are now seeing is an attack not only occuring in education; but an attack across the wide fabric of our society on our public programs and behaviors to attempt to protect the handicapped from unnecessary discrimination.

A second area of public policy is that public policy determines the degree to which those who are served will be vulnerable to abuse from those who serve. Whenever an individual, whether it be you or I or a handicapped individual, is dependent for his basic rights, for his very existence, upon those who serve him, when he becomes obligated to that individual, then he is no longer free, because his whole future is dependent upon maintaining the good graces of those who serve him. How can people be free when others have control over the destiny of their lives? Probably the thing that is most important to me in my life is the ability to get up in the morning and make decisions about my day, to make decisions about how I will relate to others and yet, the handicapped children who we serve, how much freedom do they have to make decisions about their lives. I would agree with Burt Blatt that the end product of where we are going (and we are only part of the way there) is the day when handicapped individuals are free and have the ability to determine their own destinies.

I think several things are happening that are critically important in leading us in that direction. When we went to court in the state of Pennsylvania arguing for right to education, one of the first questions which the court asked the local school administrators was how did you make a decision to exclude these children from an education? I'll interpret the kinds of answers they got. Johnny Jones, the handicapped child, is a neighbor of Mrs. Smith, who works for me. Mrs. Smith told me Johnny is very, very handicapped, he's retarded, he's blind and he can't walk too good. And she told me Johnny was getting close to school age, so I told Mrs. Smith to tell Mrs. Jones, Johnny's mother, that perhaps Johnny ought to be referred to the welfare agency. And the Judge said, "No, you didn't say that. You met with the parents, you evaluated the child, you provided them a hearing, you looked into the situation, and then made recommendations." "No, we don't do that your honor."

So the court responded, "One thing we know is that in our society people have the right to due process of law in the decisions that affect their lives." So that whenever you are going to make a substantial decision about somebody's life, about their future, you have the right to afford them all procedural guarantees. Now that's nothing new in our society, certainly you know that if you are arrested by a policeman you have certain rights. You have the right to a trial, you have the right to be confronted with the evidence, and many other rights. What the court said was that a decision about exclusion or a decision about the type of education to be provided to a child is just as significant a decision as whether a person is innocent or guilty of a crime, because the decisions that will be made will influence the entire future of a child. The decision to place a child in a program for the mentally retarded, in a sense, is not only a decision about what happens to him today but is a decision about his whole future, and those recommendations should be sent to the parents, in writing, in the language of the home, by certified or registered mail to assure that they get it. The parents should be informed of someone in the community who can advise them or talk to them about this matter. The parents should be afforded the opportunity for a fair hearing. Now I emphasize the word fair, you must have someone to preside over this who is independent of the system. Also, you must afford the child's parents the opportunity to review all records that are relevant to the decision.

By the way, I think a great deal has to be done to improve our systems of record keeping. Particularly in three areas. First, better documentation of fact. "Johnny hit Mary over the head" will not stand as evidence unless it is dated, described, witnessed, etc. Second, more professional reporting. Records are not the place for rumors, innuendos or secrets. If you are not able to defend a statement or willing to have it be read by others, don't put it in the record. Third, more purging of the files on a regular basis of information which is no longer relevant. A child of high school age should not be judged today on an incident years previous.

Parents also have the right to legal counsel, and the right to an independent evaluation of their child at public expense if necessary. This is no different again than what would be guaranteed in criminal proceedings. If you're accused of being criminally insane, for example, by the State, a court psychiatrist would examine you. You would also have the right to get an independent evaluation, and if you were poor the State is required to pay for that assessment. Parents have the right to bring in other people who may have bearing on the issue. They have the right to challenge or cross-examine witnesses, and they have a right to a record of the hearing.

Then a decision is made. It may only be on the basis of what is the appropriate placement for the child, not on the basis of what available resources are but what, in fact, the child needs.

Now in this regard, Al Abeson's point of least restrictive environment is critically important because what that means is you can't recommend placement for a child in a special school if what he needs is a special class; you can't make recommendations of placement in a special class if what he needs is a resource program. Recommendations can only be made on the basis of the least restrictive alternative. I would contend that many of our decisions about placement are made on the basis of what we have available, and what the courts are now saying "No, you can't place a child in an inappropriate program because you don't have the appropriate program available."

Now where does this lead us? I would suggest you might want to examine a much talked about concept called the individualized plan or contract. You will see it in the new Vocational Rehabilitation Act. The state of Washington has begun to adopt aspects of it. Several recent articles have discussed the concept.

Frank Wood, "Negotiation and Justification – An Intervention Model," **Exceptional Children** – November 1973.

James J. Gallagher, "The Special Education Contract for Mildly Handicapped Children," **Exceptional Children** – March 1972.

Al Abeson and I have recently written a chapter entitled "The Law and That Other Minority" in the book *Configurations of Change: The Integration of Mildly Handicapped Children into the Regular Classroom* published by The Far West Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, which discusses this issue. What I am suggesting is that due process leads to a system of individualized programs for each child in which the schools and the parents and, in many cases, the children enter into a signed agreement. The agreement would note the following: This is what we hope to achieve with Johnny, these are the resources we're going to put behind achieving it, this is how we will determine within a reasonable time whether we are in fact achieving it, and it's signed by all parties. It also includes what the parents' obligations may be, "We're going to assure that at home Johnny does a certain exercise." It also may include a third party's responsibilities such as, as part of achieving this objective Johnny will receive physical therapy at local hospital and that hospital agrees to provide that therapy. At the end of a period of time, six months or a year, we look and we say, "How is Johnny doing?" If Johnny is not doing well we find out why he is not doing well and then we renegotiate the contract, but also if Johnny has achieved what we set out to do then we have to come up with a new agreement. Thus, we don't place children in programs that are not working for the rest of their lives. We continually reassess and determine how effectively we are meeting the needs of not all children, but Johnny.

This has been one of our big problems in education – we do our assessment on the basis of classes or groups of children, and we end up saying sixty percent of the kids have improved in reading, thus, it must be a great program. I'm concerned about the forty percent who haven't, because they are as important as the sixty percent who have. Until we get down to procedures dealing with each child, we are not going to get at that issue and we are not going to protect and give that child the ability to deal with those who serve him, to protect himself from the potential abuse of those who serve him.

There may be some who will react to this type of approach by saying that it is a threat to professionalism. In Pennsylvania due process procedures are now in effect as a result of court action. I get the reaction that psychologists and special educators feel more free. They are standing up and saying, "No, I'm not going to test ten kids today, because I can't come up with good recommendations, and we're going to look like fools." And superintendents are saying to special education directors, "Don't make recommendations to us that we know we are going to lose in a hearing." So what happens is increased professional freedom. We can now do those things we have always believed right but were constrained against doing because of the pressures of the system and that excites me, and others who have gotten into this are excited as well.

Third, public policy determines how society perceives a class or group of individuals. I would contend that our cumulative policies on handicapped children often produces the negative image that society has of these children rather than the reverse. If we say these are different children, if we make them excluded children, if we send them to different schools, if we tell them you will not ride on the airplanes, what results is that society must perceive them in that sense.

U. S. Senator Harrison Williams noted that he always wondered why he felt uncomfortable around handicapped people. He tried not to, but still felt uncomfortable until he began hearings dealing with education of the handicapped and realized that he never went to school with handicapped people. He noted that it is education from which we build our perceptions of society and individuals within our society. The handicapped were always somewhere else. The school was thus saying to him that they should be somewhere else. Now as adults, how can we behave any differently? How can a person be asked to employ the handicapped, to live with the handicapped, when they grow up in an education system where they have no contact with handicapped people, where they are told the handicapped are different, and should be segregated? So, in a sense, our society's perceptions are learned and we are the teachers.

The fourth area of public policy is somewhat of a reversal of the third, in that public policies determine how individuals within society perceive themselves. Imagine yourself a handicapped child who is told you are different, unusual, don't belong and that you're not the responsibility of systems that serve your friends. The psychologists in California who tested Spanish speaking children in English, I'm sure, did not perceive themselves as part of a conspiracy against Mexican-Americans, but their action coupled with other actions could, I think, have conveyed that image to Mexican-American children, their families and communities. The child who is suspended from school for what may appear to us as a good reason, but without due process, may believe in the long run that this is a society not of law but rather one of arbitrary and capricious tyrants. The child in a wheel chair who must go to a special school for no other reason than a flight of steps bars her entry to that school which her neighbors and friends go to, learns, in addition to reading and writing, that this is, in fact, a very hostile society.

It's not the big injustices, it's the little ones that hurt children more than anything. It's the ones we do without thinking. In Pennsylvania, after the right to education decree, all kids had to go to school and there was this whole image of equality. One school system passed a regulation which said, "Mentally retarded girls may not try out for the cheerleading squad." It's that kind of discrimination which says to mentally retarded kids – this is a hostile world! I would suggest that we look very, very carefully at our policies, our subtle policies, and see what it is that those policies do to children.

I was at a meeting recently where a group of young adults from a school for the retarded entertained. When they were finished, the master of ceremonies said, "Thank you children." They were as old as I am. What does that do to their self image? I would contend that this issue is probably one of the most difficult things that we in special education are going to have to deal with.

The fifth area of public policy is the one we are most attuned to; that is public policy determines how scarce resources will be allocated. Let me be very frank. We exist in a society of scarce resources. There is not enough money, time, facilities, or manpower to do all the things that everyone wants to have done. Thus, whatever we do for the handicapped is going to come off the back of someone else. Let's face that; let's not be fearful of it, but let's accept it as a fact of life. As we move to the right to education, as we move to educating all children, as we move to appropriate education, there will be a great demand for resources. It means resources that are going to come from the school system; it may mean that the history teachers don't get their new textbooks this year; it may mean that construction on the new gymnasium will have to stop. I have no anxiety about that. There are enough advocates for the next textbooks and the new gymnasiums. It is not my job to be concerned about that; it is my job to be concerned about handicapped children and it's our job to be concerned about handicapped children. Our posture must not be to be the compromiser; in the end we will be compromised but let's not start from the position of compromise. This issue was raised in the District of Columbia. When the court ordered education for all children the District of Columbia responded to the court, "We'd love to educate these kids but we don't have the money." The court said, "The defendents are required by the Constitution of the United States, the District of Columbia Code, and their own regulations to provide a publicly supported education for these exceptional children. Their failure to fulfill this clear duty, to include and retain these children in the public school system or otherwise provide them with publicly supported education and their failure to afford them due process hearing and periodical review, cannot be excused by the claim that there are insufficient funds. The District of Columbia's interest in educating the excluded children clearly must outweigh its interest in preserving its financial resources. If sufficient funds are not available to finance all the services and programs that are needed and desirable in the system, then the available funds must be expended equitably in such a manner that no child is entirely excluded from a publicly supported education consistent with his needs and ability to benefit therefrom. The inadequacies of the District of Columbia public school system whether occasioned by insufficient funding or administrative inefficiency certainly cannot bear more heavily on the exceptional or handicapped child than on the normal child."

What this means very simply is, imagine yourself a parent of two children; you have just enough money to feed, clothe, and house those two children; then you have a third. What do you do? You readjust; you serve all those to whom you are responsible. So, too, that burden must be on the schools, everyone must get an education NOW. If the resources are not available, then handicapped children will do without art just like every other child will have to do without art, but it must be equitable.

Finally, what are we going to do to correct the situation? Well, a number of people have offered legal and administrative strategies to you; there are the courts, the legislatures, etc. I would like to share with you an equally important avenue which has been stated beautifully by Burt Blatt, "In the beginning each man must ask, what have I done, to what am I committed, what shall I do? In the beginning each of us must make promises to more than all children, but to each child, and our promises must be less on behalf of all men and more the declaration of one man as each man must proclaim, I promise and I will do, or the world will not change." Handicapped children are only going to receive the kind of education that they need when you and I are concerned, not about all children or all handicapped children, but concerned about Johnny and Mary, and when our advocacy is not on behalf of the mentally retarded or physically handicapped but when our advocacy is on behalf of Johnny and Mary.

In California when psychologists were giving tests in English to children who only spoke Spanish, while the abuse frightened me, the thing which frightened me more was the fact that it was well-trained, well-respected psychologists who were doing that kind of thing. They knew better. Nowhere in their training did they learn to give tests in English to children who speak Spanish. Why did they do it? They did it because the regulations, because the system said to do it. That's what Lieutenant Cauley said at Mai Lai, "They said to shoot, so I shot." We have got to stop that kind of behavior. We have got to start to say, I will not do wrong to children. We have got to stop asking teachers to do things which they feel they cannot do, which they are not confident in doing. We have got to truly behave like professionals, as we would like to behave. That will probably change the system more than all the laws and all the regulations that we can establish.

part III

implications for programs

THE RIGHT TO EDUCATION MANDATE: IMPLICATIONS FOR TRAINING

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The Problem

The problem special educators and others face begins with the judicial consent decrees and directives which can be subsumed under the term "right to education." Issued to state and local school systems, they require an extraordinary amount of change and development by many people, and change, as we know, is a difficult process. If compliance with the court orders is to be achieved, training, or, more precisely, retraining, for school personnel is a critical necessity. However, a large proportion of the resources required for the indicated training is lodged in institutions of higher education and they are not the direct objective of the court's imperatives.

State and local school systems can and, perhaps, necessarily will launch the training programs totally on their own, that is, without involving colleges and universities. But, it can be argued – persuasively, I think – that it would be best if the training programs required immediately to meet the present needs of handicapped children were planned in what we might call the macrosystem of both schools and colleges.

The problem then, has two parts: first, macrosystem planning, and, second, the implementation of training programs as necessary to meet our obligations to children and the needs of schools in a context of zero-demissions from schools and of "due process" in all educational placements.

Some Assumptions

Before I proceed further, let me detail some assumptions and related propositions about my topic to specify some of the boundaries of my presentation.

1. First, the "right to education" directives make it clear that all children are to receive an education – even the most profoundly handicapped. The clearest implication of this mandate is that we must prepare and supply the needed teachers and other staff to conduct programs for severely and profoundly handicapped children. We

must serve all children, but the area which has been the most neglected and must now receive the greatest attention in the macrosystem is education for the severely and profoundly handicapped.

2. Second, the education provided for handicapped children must be appropriate or suitable to the needs of the individual. It is not enough simply to permit a child to attend school; he must be provided with an individualized program and we must be prepared to justify it. This concept carries implications for diagnostic programs, curriculum development, record-keeping, and parent involvement in planning.

3. Third, recent court cases clearly indicate that children should be served in their natural environment whenever possible; that is, they should be educated in the mainstream whenever feasible and, if displacement to special settings is ever necessary, it should be only for minimum periods and for compelling reasons. "Mainstreaming" is under much discussion these days: how to build support systems for handicapped children in regular programs; how to open up boundaries between regular and special education; how to retrain regular and special education personnel for new roles; and other such questions. I assume that most special educators are willing to help in the process of mainstreaming, that is, that they will reject the special enclave theory and mode of operation as a sufficient perspective for their field and, instead, they will join in broad efforts to build the accommodative capacity for exceptionality in mainstream settings.

The preceeding three assumptions seem clear enough; they have been stated almost explicitly in recent court decrees and directives. However, I think that two additional assumptions, which relate to the localization of a child's right to education, are appropriate and important although they may not be quite so apparent. Permit me to add them to the series.

4. Fourth, that every child – even the most profoundly handicapped – can properly make his claim for education in his local school district. A secondary assumption here is that local school officials carry the basic obligation to organize education for each child. They may fulfill that obligation by arranging programs on an out-of-district basis for some children, but I assume that the local educational officials would carry the responsibility for the appropriateness of such programs. At a minimum, this responsibility would require regular reviews of each child's program, wherever it is conducted,

and the initiation of changes as they become necessary.

5. Fifth, I assume that the school district's obligation is to offer education to each handicapped child as near to his usual place of residence as possible. For example, if a child who is blind lives in a sparsely populated area in northern Minnesota, he should receive specialized instruction there – in northern Minnesota – to the extent that it is feasible; the family should not be expected to move to a metropolitan area or to send the child off by himself for schooling at some distant place. This requirement poses a tremendous distribution, or delivery, problem in special education. University trainees often favor placements in the plush atmosphere of the cities since not all handicapped children are there, new methods of distributing trained specialized personnel to points of need are required.

My list of assumptions – and associated implications – goes on to some specific considerations relating to the training problems. Again, I am adding them serially.

6. Sixth, I assume that the training activities designed to meet the new and emerging needs will need to be weighed toward an inservice rather than a preservice format. Many school districts are already "oversupplied" with teachers; rather than recruit a totally new staff for new and expanding programs, the districts will wish to redirect their present personnel to new roles. In Minnesota, the turnover of regular teachers from one year to the next (the percentage of teachers in Minnesota schools one year who were not so employed the following year) ran rather consistently at about 12 percent during the 1950's and 1960's. Currently, the rate has dropped to much less than that figure. Because of our declining child population, we are experiencing at this time a drop in the number of teaching positions as are other parts of the nation. Both these factors have resulted in a lowered demand for new personnel and, thus, for preservice preparation. Clearly, changes in the schools – insofar as they depend upon new competencies of personnel – will induce the development of inservice education for present staff rather than the recruitment of large numbers of new staff.

7. Seventh, as an adjunct to assumption no. 6, I assume that professional education programs in colleges and universities will have a surplus of preservice training capacity as the demand for teachers decreases. Consequently, the programs will face major problems of devaluation and erosion or of change; if the latter, there is a particular opportunity at this time for the training resources of colleges and universities to be redirected to the domains of need emerging from the "right to education" orders. I wish I were optimistic that

the frequent institutional option will be to change rather than to drift and erode; realistically, I expect we will see substantial changes in only some institutions of higher education in response to newly emerging needs.

Finally, I want to add one assumption relating to the covert aspects of the agenda before us.

8. Eighth, I assume that many people, including some special educators and substantial numbers of teachers and school and community leaders, do not really believe in the "right to education" principle. In other words, I assume that many people still regard education as a privilege to be denied to individuals when arrangements for them become difficult. This is to say that covert forces are probably aimed at the frustration of "right to education" programs. To put the challenge positively, a good part of the required training efforts may need to be directed to wide audiences and to concern with motivating a commitment to the "right to education" principle.

Alternative Strategies

How then should we proceed into macrosystem planning: to prepare the teachers, paraprofessionals, and other personnel essential to serve the severely and profoundly handicapped? . . . to enhance the capacity of mainstream educators to accommodate exceptionality? . . . to retrain some special educators for support modes rather than for special classes?

I wish to outline briefly five models or strategies; I'm sure there are many more possibilities, through which the training problem might be approached, with particular reference to the interrelationship among agencies such as LEAs, SEAs and IHE*. The first couple of models are provided primarily for rhetorical purposes to prepare you for a discussion in which I shall advocate certain aspects of several of the models.

The Sovietized Approach

One model would involve the specification of needs and plans at a central, national level, followed by the central allocation of functions and resources deemed necessary to accomplish the desired training outcomes. All institutions and individuals would be treated as subsidiary to the centrally specified goals and plans. For example, it

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LEAs – Local Education Agencies; SEAs – State Education Agencies; IHE – Institutes of Higher Education.

might be decided that the nation needs precisely ten specialized, regional training centers relating to visual handicaps among children; such centers would be funded on the basis of plans and obligations to meet needs in prescribed regions. Institutions in a region not "selected" for such training activities would be forbidden to engage in or strongly discouraged from entering this special field; should they do so, their training would lack credibility.

This approach could be applied at state as well as at national levels. It has some appeal from the standpoint of the efficient use of resources. But such a sovietized procedure is inherently unpalatable to most Americans; we prefer our institutions to be formed mainly through the initiatives of individuals rather than by government directive.

The IHE Dissemination Model

A second model gives to colleges and universities the primary role in designing and implementing the necessary training programs. It assumes that the necessary knowledges and skills are stockpiled within or could be developed by institutions of higher education, and that their main problem is diffusion or dissemination. Figure I represents this model schematically. The dotted line indicates that the IHE program might actually overlap to some extent into the public school domain – as in "student teaching" or other "practicum" experiences. This model is a close cousin to so-called "R & D" models in which it is assumed that research is the point of origin in knowledge, which then moves to a development phase, thence to demonstration, dissemination, and adoption phases. It's a one-way transmission from an assumed mountaintop source.

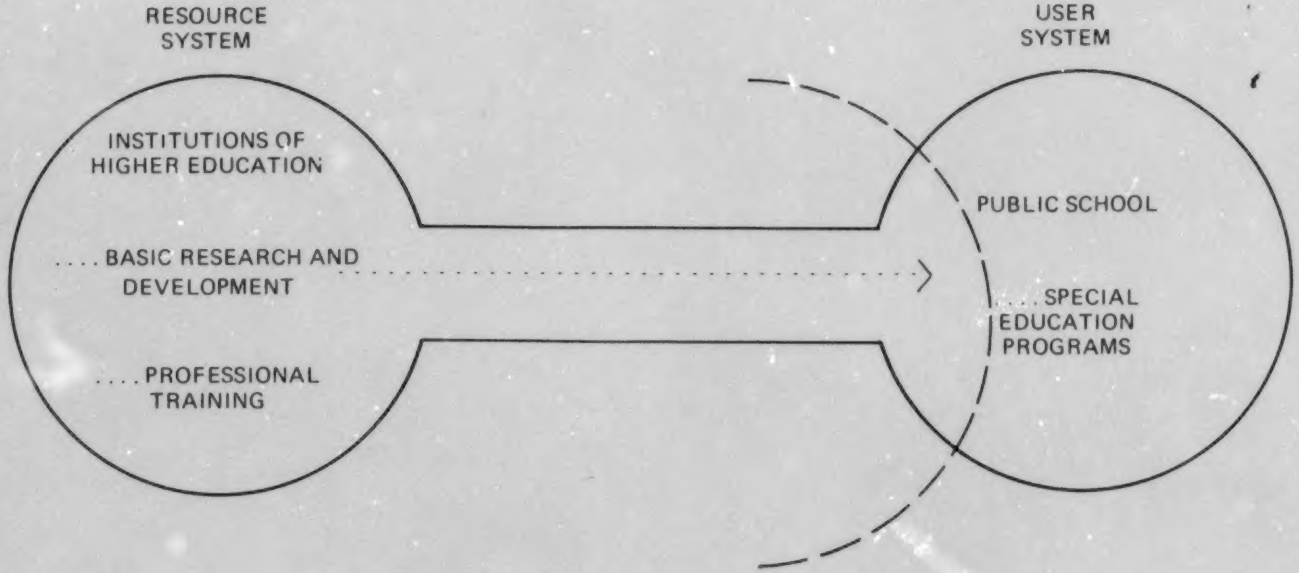
In this model, the money goes to the higher education pocket. If representatives of SEAs, LEAs or other agencies are involved in planning, it is at the pleasure of the IHE.

The limits of this model, indeed, its arrogance, are widely known and accepted at this time, even within the universities. The practice of education does not depend only or even mainly upon basic disciplines for its insights. Such practice is legitimately the very center of the inquiry process, rather than its derivative; I would argue.

Programs conducted on the IHE dissemination model are usually calculated to meet local needs in only a kind of statistical fashion; for example, they prepare the numbers of teachers needed for "turnover" and "growth" purposes, but they have no specific commitment to the needs of any particular community. Trainees are admitted to

Figure I

THE IHE DISSEMINATION MODEL


RESOURCE SYSTEM
INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION
.... BASIC RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
.... PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
USER SYSTEM
PUBLIC SCHOOL
.... SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS

training on the basis of individual promise as a candidate, and not on the basis of commitment to serve a specific need in a specific place.

The Local Needs Assessment Model

The schematic obverse of the IHE dissemination model is what might be called the Local Needs Assessment Model (see Figure II). Notice the one-way direction of the arrow; the dotted line indicates that the LEA overlaps with the IHE in various ways, perhaps in asking for the college or university to accredit work actually offered outside the higher education framework.

In this instance, the specification of the local needs is the primary activity. With data on needs at hand, there is then a mere subcontract for training, often with IHE, but sometimes with selected individuals or private corporations, or with training units created within the schools themselves.

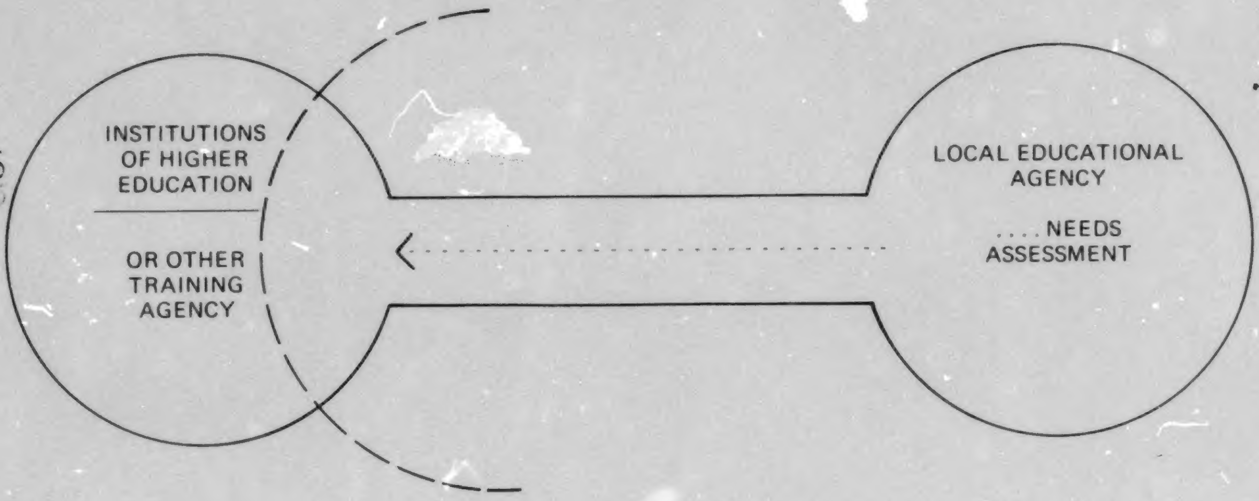
In this instance, the money starts in the pocket of the state or local education agency and IHE may or may not be involved, at the pleasure of the local or state agency.

College staff members frequently are apprehensive about macrosystems which put them in a subcontracting role to schools. It may take basic financial controls out of their hands and, even more importantly, it removes some of their power to control admission criteria for trainees and curriculum. Many college people are mindful of the long history of controls exercised over vocational education programs in colleges and universities through State Departments of Education and of the staid values which came to permeate that program. In a somewhat similar way, Veterans Administration Hospitals and related programs exercised a high degree of control over IHE programs in fields such as Social Work, Clinical Psychology, and Physical Medicine, just after World War II. The effects were such as to reflect the values of the Veterans' programs and to neglect, for a time, the broader and deeper values which might have emerged from a more open model in IHE.

There is much to be said for using local needs assessment as a basis for planning training programs, especially since primacy can be given to the ultimate consumer, the exceptional child. Nevertheless, a pure case of school control of training probably neglects important values, just as turning the medical school over to the local hospitals would entail a potentially excessive provincialism and neglect of values which IHE can contribute from other frames of reference.

Figure II

THE LOCAL NEEDS ASSESSMENT MODEL



The Voluntary Collaboration Model

Another model, which I've called the "Voluntary Collaboration Model," would call upon all agencies to plan training programs in sensitive and generous cooperation with others. In drafting materials recently for CEC's project on professional standards and guidelines, I phrased standards and examples as indicated below; proposed standards are in all CAPS, followed by examples and nonexamples.

TRAINING CENTERS SHOULD DECIDE UPON THE TRAINING PROGRAMS THEY WILL CONDUCT IN SENSITIVE COOPERATION WITH OTHER AGENCIES AFFECTED OR INTERESTED, AS A WAY OF ENHANCING THE PLANS OF ALL CONCERNED, OF ADVANCING COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE FOR THE FUTURE AND OF CONSERVING RESOURCES.

Examples:

A state department of education invites college representatives to participate in a system for assessment of needs for new teachers and inservice education in the several regions of the state.

College and local school representatives meet regularly each fall to plan coordinated training and service programs for the next summer.

College staff, local directors, and the state director of special education design a cooperative three-year plan to upgrade teacher preparation to deal effectively with children who show extreme behavior problems.

A division of CEC assesses carefully the needs for continuing education of college professors in a given domain and organizes the necessary programs.

Nonexamples:

A university announces an "Evening Class Schedule" for inservice teachers without consultation with anyone but the professors involved.

A college offers "learning disability" extension courses in more or less random locations to volunteer enrollees, without attention to programatic needs in any area.

A state department of education offers inservice training on "program evaluation" to local administrators of special education, without informing or inviting local college staff members who will later be involved.

IN DOMAINS IN WHICH ONLY A LIMITED NUMBER OF HIGHLY SPECIALIZED TRAINING CENTERS ARE NEEDED FOR THE ENTIRE NATION, IT IS DESIRABLE THAT EXISTING CENTERS TAKE LEADERSHIP IN DEFINING A DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVITIES SUCH THAT TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR TEACHERS AND OTHER PERSONNEL WILL RESULT IN SERVICE TO EVERY EXCEPTIONAL CHILD – NO MATTER WHERE HE LIVES.

Examples:

Institutions preparing teachers in a low incidence area jointly sponsor an annual meeting to share information on training needs, resources and plans.

The U.S. Office of Education sponsors a program of recurring needs assessments for specialized personnel in low-incidence areas.

After careful study and advice, the U.S. Office of Education decides to limit its support to three centers for preparation of peripatologists.

Nonexamples:

A highly specialized preparation center prepares a substantial number of capable teachers but takes no basic responsibility for placement of them where needs are greatest.

A specialized low-incidence preparation center offers practicums for teacher trainees only in its own enriched laboratories and, in effect, fails to prepare teachers for services in poorly staffed rural areas where they are needed.

Directors of training centers in low-incidence areas take no responsibility for national needs-assessment and planning, while claiming national impact.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES SHOULD UNDERTAKE PROGRAMS FOR THE PREPARATION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION PERSONNEL ON THE BASIS OF PLANNING WHICH INCLUDES

AWARENESS OF AND CAREFUL DELIBERATIONS ON RESOURCES AND COMMITMENTS OF OTHER INSTITUTIONS WHICH MAY HAVE SIMILAR MISSIONS AND PROGRAMS, THE OBJECTIVE BEING THAT TRAINING RESOURCES ARE CONSERVED AND THAT, IN BROADEST PERSPECTIVE, THE FIELD SHALL HAVE A BALANCED AND COMPREHENSIVE SET OF TRAINING PROGRAMS CAREFULLY ATTUNED TO THE NEEDS OF CHILDREN.

Examples:

The state department of education publishes a report and convenes an annual meeting of college and university representatives to review training resources and productivity of each training program — as a means of encouraging interinstitutional awareness and planning.

Colleges of a state regularly share tentative plans for summer training programs one year in advance, so that programs will complement and not duplicate one another.

A university decides to close a training program relating to hearing-impaired children, because another nearby institution has a strong program which supplies all needs in the area.

Nonexamples:

A college proceeds to organize the third program for preparation of "teachers of the visually handicapped" in the state without reference to established programs.

Teachers of the "trainable retarded," after neglect for years, receive invitations to two summer training programs from different colleges for the same month.

Three training centers in the same area are simultaneously developing "packaged" training modules on behavior modification procedures.

WHEN A GIVEN COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY DECIDES ON THE DOMAINS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN WHICH IT WILL AND WILL NOT OFFER PREPARATION PROGRAMS IT SHOULD CONTINUE TO SEEK AWARENESS OF NEEDS IN ALL DOMAINS, INCLUDING THOSE IT LEAVES VACANT IN ITS OWN OFFERINGS, AND SUPPORT OTHER INSTITUTIONS WHICH UNDERTAKE PROGRAMS IN THOSE "VACANT" AREAS.

Examples:

A college which does not offer specialized preparation in a given area, such as braille and mobility instruction for blind children, helps to recruit and refer promising students to institutions having strong programs in those areas.

A state department of education, in announcing its annual sequence of training institutes, also lists relevant training sessions to be conducted by other agencies in the same period.

A college which does not have a program relating to profoundly retarded children nevertheless considers hosting a summer program in that field in cooperation with several other agencies when needs become apparent.

Nonexamples:

A college staff which offers "speech correction and mental retardation" programs has no apparent interest or current information on programs for the hearing impaired.

A student who expresses interest in teaching the blind is recruited instead to another field because that is what the local college offers.

Brochures which announce highly specialized training programs in "other" colleges and states are given minimal prominence.

Clearly, I think it is desirable that agencies should cooperate with one another, in the ways illustrated above, as a means of encouraging mutual development, efficiency, and comprehensiveness. But pure voluntary cooperation is difficult to achieve, so incentive systems may need to be added. The present requirement by the Training Division of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped that SEA "needs summaries" be incorporated into applications for funds by IHE is a step in this direction. A more stringent step sometimes considered in this context would be to require an actual "sign off" by SEAs on plans submitted for federal funding by any agency within a state. A similar effect is achieved when federal officers channel all funds of a given category to SEAs for initiatives, as in the recent announcement by BEH for grants for the training of regular teachers. It seems desirable that voluntary coordination in planning be achieved, with hierarchical "sign off" or equivalent models held to a minimum.

A Problem-Solving Model

The final model, and clearly my favorite, is what might be called the "Problem Solving Model." In discussing it, I wish also to commend it to you as something we ought to set as a goal for the future. Its particular focus is the interaction of IHE with state and local education agencies.

A model for creating training programs which are responsive to children's needs under the "right to education" mandate ought to meet certain criteria, such as the following:

1. It increases communication among all units involved. For example, if IHE and LEAs are involved, the communication ought to be two-way and not one-way, as in the first models discussed above.

2. It increases understanding of the problem-solving modes of all institutions involved. If IHE, SEAs, and LEAs are to work together, for example, they should be able to simulate problem-solving activities and to respect the values held by each other.

3. The model should result in satisfying the standards of quality held in the several institutions involved. For example, a cooperative LEA-IHE program for teacher education should provide simultaneously, in a single setting, for the effective instruction of both teachers and children.

4. It provides for the enhancement of the capacity of all institutions involved to conduct improved training in the future in whatever domains may be involved.

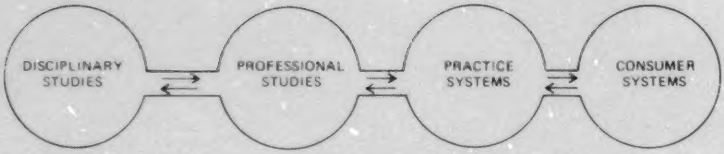
5. It should provide for the delivery of all relevant knowledge to service settings; but, equally, it should serve to inform research and development personnel of the real problems in field situations.

A schematic presentation of the Problem-Solving Model is provided in Figure III.

It is important to see this model as not simply a Research ⟶ Development ⟶ Diffusion Model; nor as a way of making IHE into mere subcontractors to LEAs and SEAs. The model proposes

Figure III

MACROSYSTEM MODEL



DISCIPLINARY STUDIES – USUALLY IN LIBERAL ARTS AND SCIENCES COLLEGES BASIC RESEARCH "UNENCUMBERED" KNOWLEDGE	PROBLEM ORIENTED – USUALLY IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION OR OTHER PROFESSIONAL UNITS APPLIED RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT "ENCUMBERED" KNOWLEDGE	PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS STANDARDS, COMMUNICATION, ADVOCACY, JURYING, PROTECTION	EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN SCHOOLS AND SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS SERVING CHILDREN PARENTS
PSYCHOLOGY, MATH GENETICS, LINGUISTICS	IHE DEPARTMENTS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION	CEC, AAMD, ACLD, TAG, etc	SPECIAL EDUCATION AND OTHER PROGRAMS FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

NOTES *The model proposes continuous two-way linkages between the University community and the schools, these may be thought of as diffusion and needs transmissions (see two-way arrows above)*

IHE professional departments would engage in continuous two-way communications with the central or "inner core" disciplinary structures of the University

The professional department would inform the disciplinary units concerning needs it discovers in consumer systems and help screen for relevant basic knowledges. It would serve also to draw talents from the total university structure to concerns and appreciations in community settings

The professional department would also design its activities (training, research and service) in concert with agents of the practice and consumer system more than a system for soft interactions and mutual stimulation and consultation at points of shared interests. Instead, it proposes a strong partnership in which needs assessments, resource analyses, and planning are done cooperatively with inputs from and major effects on all concerned. Problems are identified cooperatively, alternatives are generated and evaluated, and decisions are made accordingly. The summative result is a new paradigm for IHE-LEA interaction. IHE would redesign their programs to meet the problems of the schools, and the latter would enter into plans that served IHE interests for producing generalizable knowledge and training new personnel for the field.

Perhaps the clearest way of explicating further the Problem-Solving Model will be through examples. I shall provide two briefly; one from my own experience as Director of the Leadership Training Institute/Special Education, and one described as the Powhatan Project by Professor Howard Sparks of the Virginia Commonwealth University.

The LTI Experience

In work connected with the Council of Great Cities*, I have had occasion to develop a tool which may be useful in developing a problem-solving interaction between IHE and LEAs. It may be used to specify topics of concern, training targets, and modes of needed assistance.** For example, from a large set of possible topics of concern, it may be decided that priority attention is needed on such interrelated topics as retraining special class teachers for resource teacher roles, and redesigning referral and information systems and strategies for change. Priority concerns are set on the first dimension.

The second dimension to be addressed would be the training targets. In the example initiated above, it might be decided that the superintendent of schools and his cabinet need orientation to new models of special education, that school principals need more extensive orientation to new models and to the implications of their roles, that the special education leadership staff needs to develop more sophisticated understandings and skills in change processes, and that large programs for the retraining of regular and special teachers need to be launched.

One would then proceed to the third dimension, which is concerned with modes of assistance. It might be decided, for example, that the superintendent and his staff need to visit several successful programs in other cities and to be provided with basic descriptive and evaluative literature on new models; that a three-day workshop should be held for school principals; that a new information and accounting system ought to be designed and implemented; and that the teacher retraining program should be launched as an adjunct to a set of demonstration programs created in various sections of the city.

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*Members are the 24 largest city school systems of the nation.

**A copy of the device is attached as Appendix A.

In this example, I hope it is clear that a variety of training needs became apparent and that other kinds of needs were also involved, such as to redesign the school's information system, and resources well beyond the competencies of special educators, as in treating topics concerned with change strategies. A college or university that undertakes to begin problem-solving with school systems in this kind of framework will probably find that it can respond to only some of the needs discovered, and that responsiveness requires a clustering of resources in flexible ways that are departures from the traditional disciplinary and professional structures of the University.

This kind of problem-solving interaction also makes it apparent that such capcities as the IHE may have to undertake research, consultation, and technical services of various kinds can also be rallied in support of training activities in ways that enhance the values of all functions and agencies.

I am suggesting that the training activities of colleges and universities can be designed in a very different frame of reference than those of the past. In the framework proposed here, the IHE is seen as the expert in the creation of training systems, rather than as the operator of a relatively stable set of programs. It is prepared to design retraining programs for secretaries, teachers, principals, parents, school boards, superintendents, or others; and it does so in the context of varieties of other activities, including evaluation, research, writing of technical reports, and the like.

In this mode of operation the IHE does not give up its desire to create generalizable knowledge; that desire and drive are as great as ever. What is new is its willingness to interact with other institutions, with all of their realities and encumbrances, and to build its capacities to be helpful as well as its knowledge base within that frame.

I believe that collaborative "problem-solving" behaviors of such positive design as I've just tried to portray for you present not only the opportunity for exciting and important work by the colleges, but also, I believe, it offers the kind of framework for IHE to recover some of the public appreciation and support that now tends to be diminishing.

The Powhatan Project

Sparks has described an interactive program between the Virginia Commonwealth University and a rural area that resulted in the definition and operation of programs in a variety of areas. Special educators and others from the University, working with community representatives, decided upon cooperative action in the domains of community involvement, disability identification, inservice education, curriculum planning, administrative planning, parent guidance, University student involvement, and pilot programming. Sparks' report describes the results as a "mutually beneficial arrangement."

The Special Problem of Preparing Personnel to Serve Severely and Profoundly Handicapped Children

A separate section is needed here to discuss the special problems of providing education for severely and profoundly handicapped children. It is in this domain that the macrosystem planning problems are most difficult: training resources are scarce and should, in fact, be consolidated in a few places in order to assure good quality, and the placement of professional persons with specialized competencies is extremely difficult.

It would be easy to opt in this domain for a completely sovietized model. Indeed, if we do take seriously the "right to education" mandate it is necessary to undertake macrosystem planning of a very broad scope.

One alternative to a completely sovietized system for managing training programs is proposed in model no. 4 above, the "Voluntary Coordination Model." It would be extremely desirable for institutions and agencies that have significant training resources and programs in such areas as education for the blind, profoundly deaf, autistic, profoundly handicapped, and multi-handicapped to get together and concert their plans. Hopefully, they could reach agreements, at least informally, on ways of stretching their services over broad regions to provide more inservice education in situations where particular needs exist.

But it seems likely that with even the best of strictly voluntary efforts created "spontaneously" by existing agencies, broadly spread across the nation, there will be nothing like full success in meeting the needs of severely and profoundly handicapped children where they reside. Perhaps we should consider, and I do propose, two additional and new steps which could be taken. They are complementary to and not competitive with voluntary efforts.

First, I would propose that there should be established, probably through federal funds, a "pool" of funds in each state which individual schools could draw upon to meet existing or anticipated specific needs for personnel to serve severely and profoundly handicapped children. The model is used in England at a national level and was described about a decade ago in an article in the CEC's *Exceptional Children Journal* by Professor Thomas Watson of the University of Manchester.

Let me describe the plan in terms of how it might have met the real needs of one Minnesota small community, which I knew, several years ago. It involves the area of visual handicap, which for me and my colleagues at the University of Minnesota is a problem area of a recurrently haunting character because we gave up a full-fledged training program in that area about a decade ago.

In this particular town, several blind children were identified at preschool levels. No special resources for managing their education existed in the district or region. Under the plan I'm proposing, that community would have been in a position to recruit a teacher in the system who was willing to undertake training in the specialized aspects of teaching visually handicapped children, and to propose a withdrawal of funds from the state "pool" so that the teacher could draw full salary continuously while in training.

In England, the "pool" pays two-thirds of the teacher's salary while in training, and the LEA pays the remaining one-third in return for a commitment to return to that community to serve the specific needs that precipitated the whole chain of events.

I have long felt that we should try something like this English plan as a way of solving the difficult problems of supplying teachers for severely and profoundly handicapped children according to a plan that is precisely responsive to particular needs. By this plan, teachers in training could often be oriented even to specific pupils at the time of their training. Presumably, they would go off to training centers of high repute, wherever they are located, but throughout training the teachers would have clearly in view the needs and characteristics of the community in which they would serve.

This method, putting the community in the position of the "purchaser" of training for locally recruited persons as a way of utilizing scarce training resources to meet the precise needs of distinctly handicapped children, seems to me to be a vastly preferable alternative to the sovietized model which lodges so much power at the "central" end of the structure. The English plan not only enhances resources but also accountability at local school levels, while it permits the development of only a limited number of highly specialized training centers.

In a sense, this plan pinpoints training activities rather than a kind of statistical planning. It just happens that statistical approaches are not sufficient to deal with extremely low-incidence problems and needs.

My second suggestion is that there is a need for at least one nationally oriented "technical assistance" or "training coordination" center which can help to develop and deliver training resources in the extremely low-incidence areas such as blindness, profound deafness, autism, profound retardation, and multihandicaps. Since it seems unlikely that the U. S. Office of Education will be funded adequately in the near future to undertake this task, something like an LTI model, which creates resources in some field center, is indicated as a source of coordination and leadership. Such a center presumably would help to organize broad-scale disseminations and training activities so that scarce resources would have optimal utilization in a nationwide span.

SUMMARY

Although "right to education" mandates in their binding aspects apply only to school systems, it is clear that the training implications carry wider implications, in particular, for colleges and universities that control such a substantial proportion of the training resources. It happens, because of quite unrelated events, that colleges and universities actually have a "surplus" of training resources, judged in terms of demand for products formed on models of past years, and they should be able to shift attention to the difficult new training areas created by right to education imperatives. Planning in the macrosystem, inclusive of IHE, LEAs, SEAs, and USOE, is a necessity.

Five models of macrosystem planning for training were presented, roughly in order from a completely Sovietized system through several models involving biased power bases in schools or colleges to more collaborative models. What I've advocated is a "problem-solving model" fashioned after the work of theorists in knowledge dissemination and utilization, a model in which IHE and school systems join together in defining problems in such a way that they respect the special values inherent in each. The training operations undertaken in this framework would represent carefully designed, tailor-made ventures to meet specific institutional needs. The university, in this frame, becomes a broadly oriented creator and vendor of training systems, a far cry from operating standardized teacher education programs which may entail the use of a few practice teaching placements for students in community programs.

A final note has been appended dealing with the problems of highly distinctive training needs, such as for teachers skilled in braille methods or mobility training for blind children, special approaches to profoundly disturbed children, profoundly deaf children, or severely multi-handicapped children. A plan was proposed for these domains in which the community is in the position of a purchaser of training in order to assure the needed distribution of highly specialized personnel. Such a consumer-dominated system is proposed as a necessity in dealing with the most specialized and specific needs of our field. Statistical matches with needs no longer suffice; instead, we must meet the needs of every child on his – the child's – home ground.

APPENDIX A

A Problem-Solving Tool for LEA-IHE Interactions

In fulfilling a model as outlined in the main body of this paper under the heading "A Problem-Solving Model" it will be useful to develop and share tools. An example of such a tool, developed in interactions of the Leadership Training Institute/Special Education with special education administrators in large cities, is provided here. The assumption is that something like this kind of tool would be useful in IHEs as they attempt to analyze and organize their resources and use them in a problem-solving way in cooperation with LEA representatives.

It is a three-dimensional model for defining supportive or technical assistance needs in large city special education programs. The three dimensions are:

1. Modes of Technical Assistance (TA) – that is, methods by which TA may be offered;

2. Topics of Concern – that is, the substantive areas in which "outside" help may be needed;

3. Target Groups – that is, what individuals or groups should be the object of TA provided or supported by an outside agency.

Each of the three dimensions is outlined below in an open system of categories. Blank spaces are meant to suggest the obvious incompleteness of the structure.

1. MODES OF TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE

A great variety of procedures might be used to relate IHE resources to LEA needs. Listed below is a set of general categories and sub-categories which may be useful in considering possibilities. The outline is by no means complete, but will be suggestive of some procedures now being used by emerging technical assistance agencies in the field of education.

1.1 Consultation

1.1.1 Short-term visit and consultation by member of the staff of the technical assistance agency.

1.1.2 Short-term visit and consultation by an appropriate specialist or agency employed by the technical assistance agency, upon agreement by all parties.

1.1.3 Short-term consultation provided to a group of recipients from several agencies on the basis of some common problem or similarity of concern.

1.1.4 Review and advice of documents or plans by specialists, without field visit.

1.1.5 ____

____

1.2 Training

1.2.1 Conduct of or support of training sessions of short or long duration arranged specifically for various individuals or groups. This might include: institutes, workshops, seminars, practicums, "packaged" presentations, courses, etc.

1.2.2 Support of individuals wishing to travel to and participate in established training programs.

1.2.3 Support for enrichment or development of training resources and systems.

1.2.4 ____
____

1.3 Technical Reports

1.3.1 Literature reviews on key topics.

1.3.2 Service in conducting surveys or searches of critical domains.

1.3.3 Periodic technical reports and summaries of emerging knowledge and practices on topics of importance to client agencies.

1.3.4 Seeking for and assisting in development of reports from various agencies or experts which have promise of "payoff" for client agencies.

1.3.5 Drafting policy papers and/or supporting documentation.

1.3.6 ____
____

1.4 Temporary Staffing Help

1.4.1 Temporary staffing by "outsiders" to conduct work requiring specialists not ordinarily needed or available – such as systems analysts.

1.4.2 Provision of "project advocates" – i.e., outstanding staff members (perhaps counterpart agency officers in a comparable system) who would visit and provide general perspective and assistance.

1.4.3 ____
____

1.5 Direct Participation

1.5.1 Occasional participation of "outsider" as negotiators in difficult or delicate situations or as interpreters to administrators, etc.

1.5.2 As hard-nosed evaluators-critic

1.5.3 ____

1.6 Pilot Project Support

1.6.1 Assisting and supporting development of prototype programs.

1.6.2 Working out cooperative pilot or development projects which serve needs of all parties involved; e.g., a joint project might serve as a resource of program renewal in an LEA and also as a training station for the IHE.

1.7 Newsletter Type Support

1.7.1 Assistance in "keeping up" with developments and products in other comparable agencies.

1.7.2 Providing reliable and timely information on matters of legislation, regulation, court directives, etc.

1.7.3 ____

1.8 Visting Model Programs

1.8.1 Creating awarenesses of alternative approaches to issues or problems through visitations.

1.8.2 Creating awarenesses through support of trips and visits to specialized conferences.

1.8.3 ____

2. TOPICS OF CONCERN

Listed below are six general topics which appear to be of high significance to administrators of special education programs. These are some of the substantive areas in which "outside" technical assistance or support is needed with rather high frequency at this time. Immediately following this list is a detailed breakdown of some of the particular kinds of activities which might be undertaken in the different areas.

It needs to be stressed that the orientation to be used here is an "external" one; the question is what are the topics on which one needs or could use substantial outside resources. The whole notion here is not to identify all topics of importance in the field of special education but only those which require help from an outside agency.

2.1 *Strategies for Change*

2.1.1 Planning process: Clarifying goals, objectives, responsibility and authority.
2.1.2 Alternative change strategies.
2.1.3 Needs assessment.
2.1.4 Evaluation.
2.1.5 ________________________________

2.2 *Management Systems*

2.2.1 Management decision making models.
2.2.2 Finance and budgeting.
2.2.3 Implications of decentralized management systems.
2.2.4 Personnel management systems.
2.2.5 Community advisory and policy groups.
2.2.6 Program accountability.
2.2.7 Systems for individualized instruction.
2.2.8 Administration of inservice education.
2.2.9 ________________________________

2.3 *Information Systems*

2.3.1 Intra-system and intra-staff communications.
2.3.2 Inter-system communications.
2.3.3 Information dissemination to community.
2.3.4 Central pupil personnel records and accounting.
2.3.5 Monitoring systems (pupil, teacher and administrator).
2.3.6 Ethics of information acquisition and exchange.
2.3.7 Identification of exemplary models of practice and "current developments."
2.3.8 Accessing information networks.
2.3.9 Providing instructional materials.
2.3.10 Literature reviews on key topics including resources.
2.3.11 ________________________________

2.4 *Child Study: Identification, Diagnosis, Prescription*

2.4.1 Changing models for diagnosis.
2.4.2 Decategorizing and delabeling the system.

2.4.3 Systems for identifying children with special needs.

2.4.4 "Giving Away" (G. Miller's idea) testing and similar specialized functions.

2.4.5 Developing the in-school learning center.

2.4.6 Undoing the "waiting list" for diagnostic studies.

2.4.7 Inter-professional cooperation in diagnosis.

2.4.8 Case-management systems.

2.4.9 ______________________________

2.5 Interagency Cooperation

2.5.1 Collaboration with institutions of higher education.

2.5.2 Collaboration with SEA's.

2.5.3 Collaboration with suburban and regional agencies.

2.5.4 Collaboration with community agencies.

2.5.5 Collaboration with parent groups.

2.5.6 Systems for surveying and cataloging community resources.

2.5.7 "Due Process" negotiations with parents and community.

2.5.8 ______________________________

2.5.9 ______________________________

2.6 Critical Problem Areas

2.6.1 Educational implications of low income.

2.6.2 Educational implications of broken families.

2.6.3 Early childhood education for the handicapped.

2.6.4 Vocational (career) education for the handicapped.

2.6.5 Effects of State de-institutionalization policies.

2.6.6 Educating severely handicapped children.

2.6.7 Educating deaf children.

2.6.8 Education of the gifted.

2.6.9 Autistic children.

2.6.10 Models for curriculum development.

2.6.11 Emerging products from various schools.

2.6.12 Instructional materials: systems for evaluation, acquisition and dissemination.

2.6.13 "Due Process" requirements and procedures.

2.6.14 Zero-demission commitments and procedures.

2.6.15 "Mainstreaming" models.

2.6.16 Certification of personnel.

2.6.17 Special education in "open schools."

2.6.18 Adapting special education to IGE or other individualization systems.

2.6.19 More relevant testing procedures.

2.6.20 Policy implications of recent court decisions.

2.6.21 Program evaluation systems.

2.6.22 Documenting program "payoff."
2.6.23 Funding patterns.
2.6.24 Revising State Legislation.
2.6.25 ______________________________

3. TARGET GROUPS

It is undoubtedly true that Special Education Administrators need to address a variety of special target groups in order to achieve necessary changes and developments of programs. Following is a beginning outline of potential target groups. It is assumed that administrators of special education would themselves be a primary client of the TA envisioned here, but attention then needs to go to his clients – including those listed here.

3.1 Central Administrators
3.2 School Principals

3.2.1 Elementary principals.
3.2.2 Secondary principals.

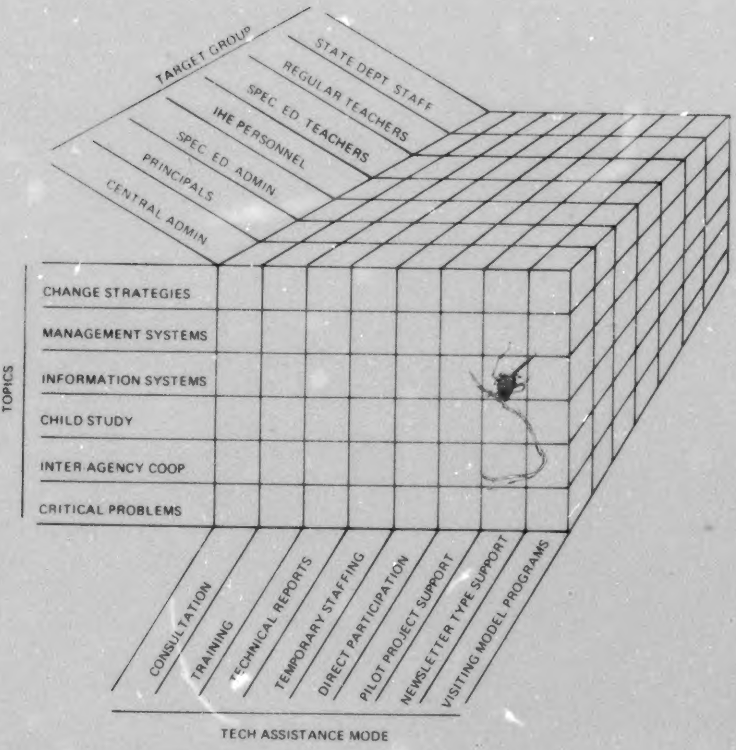
3.3 Special Education Supervisors and Administrators
3.4 College and University (IHE) Personnel
3.5 Special Education Teachers
3.6 Regular Education Teachers
3.7 State Department of Education Staff
3.8 Pupil Personnel Workers
3.9 Community Personnel

3.9.1 Parents of handicapped children.
3.9.2 Community agency personnel.

3.10 School Board Members
3.11 ______________________________

It would be possible to plan and describe the operation of an IHE-LEA joint enterprise using the above three dimensions. As a beginning point, it would perhaps be useful to assign priorities to Topics of Concern; then to indicate preferred Modes and Targets of Assistance. By a succession of such behaviors, a set of possible relationships could be described and a set of priorities established. By aggregating responses from several LEAs, it would be possible to describe generally the kinds of resources and processes which would be needed and this should help the IHE decide upon the kinds of resources and plans which would likely be useful in a general way and over a fairly long period of time. The matrix given below, as Figure IV, represents schematically the general elements of the system.

Figure IV
TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE MATRIX



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RIGHT TO AN EDUCATION MANDATE: IMPACT ON UNIVERSITY TRAINING PROGRAMS

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The "Right to an Education Mandate" **requires** that handicapped children be allowed access to public education and **implies** that the educational program be qualitatively appropriate. The conscientious implementation of the mandate will require colleges and universities to produce greater numbers of special educators. Even more important to achieve quality programming for exceptional children, university training programs will be required to: 1) develop differential training sequences for personnel that will be needed for new roles created by the mandate; 2) develop and use selection procedures that will maximize the possibility of success of those persons trained; 3) devote a substantial portion of their training resources to familiarize regular education personnel with the needs of the handicapped; and 4) develop strategies for assisting local service agencies in providing inservice education for their employees.

Training Personnel for New Roles

It is generally accepted by special educators that the needs of **all** handicapped children will be met only if school districts provide a wide variety of service options. Consequently, a number of service hierarchies have been proposed (Deno, 1970; Dunn, 1973). These service hierarchies usually contain provisions of some form of instructional support for children in regular classes with mild handicaps, some form of special class service for children with moderate handicaps, and special facilities or day schools for children with severe or profound handicaps. Traditionally, college and university training programs prepared personnel to work only in the middle portion of the service hierarchy – special class placement. Even those individuals who currently function as itinerant or resource persons and provide instructional support to handicapped children in regular classrooms have not, as a rule, been trained significantly different than their special class counterparts. Similarly, those individuals who are currently working in facilities serving severe and profoundly handicapped children most likely did not participate in a training program specifically designed for their current role. The traditional training programs for teachers who will serve moderately handicapped children in special classes are probably adequate, but personnel serving the mildly handicapped child in regular classes and persons working with severe and profoundly handicapped children need pre-service training that is directly related to the population of children they will be serving.

Mildly Handicapped: A number of models currently exist which purport to meet the needs of children with mild to moderate handicapping conditions through itinerant and/or resource teacher roles. These models characterize the itinerant and resource person as: being experts in screening, identification and diagnosis; proficient in behavioral management, curriculum design and writing educational prescriptions; possessing human relations skills that allow them to deal effectively with regular classroom teachers; and, as having program evaluation skills which enable them to demonstrate the efficacy of programs for purposes of accountability. Do we really have a knowledge base from which we can develop training programs to train persons with a high degree of competence in these skills? Special educators know a great deal about the instructional needs of exceptional children. Little knowledge exists, however, regarding the diagnosis of regular classroom teachers' needs and readiness level in dealing differentially with exceptional children. Such a body of knowledge is needed to meet the mandate and to provide successful programs for the mildly handicapped in the regular classroom.

Severely and Profoundly Handicapped: Though the severely and profoundly handicapped represent only a small portion of the population (percentage wise), they need programs involving training, supervision and care throughout their life. Thus, it is estimated that in Kansas, a relatively sparsely populated state, there are about 2,500 to 3,000 individuals who are severely or profoundly handicapped. The development of training programs to prepare personnel to serve these individuals is complicated by the fact that the training programs must vary for those working at the pre-school, school, and adult years. Though the numbers of individuals at each age level are relatively small, highly competent professionals are required if the needs of individuals with severe and profound handicaps are to be met. In addition to developing training programs for professional personnel, colleges and universities must develop programs for the training of teacher aides, parents, and other para-professionals who will work in concert with professional educators. The needs of this handicapped group are such that all individuals who are involved with them on a daily basis must contribute cooperatively to the instructional program.

University training programs may have to be conducted off campus, for few (if any) model programs for profoundly and severely handicapped exist on university campuses. Good program models are essential to the universities because training programs for the profoundly handicapped must be implemented with a great deal of precision, requiring a high degree of competence on the part of personnel involved.

This competence will most likely be developed only if training programs are largely field based. Although field based training programs may complicate the lives of some university administrators, such programs will be essential for the development of competent professionals to work with the severely and profoundly handicapped. University administrators must also be prepared to allow differential admission requirements in order that many persons who work with the severely and profoundly handicapped, who may not (or need not) be high school graduates, can receive some specialized training.

Finally, of special importance in training personnel for working with the severely and profoundly handicapped will be the need for increased interagency cooperation between local education associations, state education associations, and institutions of higher education. Since a significant portion of the resources needed to train personnel are away from university campuses, this cooperation is essential for the establishment of adequate training programs.

Selection and Recruitment of Personnel

Selection and recruitment of personnel to work with handicapped individuals is a somewhat unfamiliar problem to special educators. Traditionally we have taken individuals who met our admission requirements (usually only G.P.A.) and provided instruction in whatever area of the handicapped they preferred. The diminishing job market in regular education will undoubtedly bring more and more regular education students into special education. It is probably safe to assume that not everyone is suited to working with exceptional children. Thus screening instruments are needed to select individuals with good potential for working with the handicapped. Additionally, we need to develop the means for matching the aptitudes of applicants with the particular roles they may assume. The individual who is successful in helping regular classroom teachers meet the educational needs of mildly handicapped students might not be as successful with pre-school profoundly retarded children.

Selection of potential teachers with the greater probability for success must be a major concern of universities. Yet, there is very little research dealing with variables associated with "good" teachers of the handicapped. One such study by Moody (1973) compared the scores of Special Education teachers on the Teacher Perceiver Interview (Science Research Inc., 1972) and **The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory** with the ranking of teacher's overall effectiveness by her Director of Special Education. The correlation between the administrators ranking and the test instruments was found to be non-significant. An interesting finding, however, was that the special education teachers in this sample scored below the mean of regular teachers on both the Teacher Perceiver Interview and **The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory**. Though the validity of these instruments is as yet unproven for regular education and particularly special education, special educators should be alert to the fact that we may be training a number of individuals to work with handicapped children whose potential for becoming competent educators is less than outstanding.

Training Regular Education Personnel

If present trends toward "mainstreaming" continue, the majority of handicapped children will be receiving their instruction in regular classrooms. Though regular teachers will be assisted by special education instructional support persons, some preservice education is necessary to increase their readiness for accepting handicapped children in their classrooms. A number of states already require that all education majors have a survey course in special education and some states require a course in Learning Disabilities as well. Providing preservice courses to regular education personnel is of significance since it will require a substantial portion of Special Education resources to provide such service.

Inservice Education

Inservice education or retraining programs may become an important part of the university training function as a result of the "Right to an Education Mandate." The implementation of the mandate by public schools will undoubtedly require the employment of a large number of untrained or partially trained persons who will need systematic inservice education if they are to function effectively. Training will also be needed for those persons who are moved into new and different instructional roles as service hierarchies are developed by school districts. As new models for providing service to the mildly and profoundly handicapped are developed and proven effective, school personnel, also, will need to be trained to implement the new models in their individual school districts. Thus, if university Special Education departments are to provide a functional service to the public schools, a portion of their training resources need to be devoted to inservice education. A great deal will be learned and valuable experience gained before quality services can be provided to handicapped children at the upper and lower ends of the service continuum. By being aware of their ignorance in the area, however, special educators should be able to minimize the number of inadequate programs established for training special education personnel.

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NATIONAL LEADERSHIP EFFORTS BEARING UPON RIGHT TO EDUCATION

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It has been suggested (Culbertson, et. al., 1973) that educational leadership faces four major problem areas on a national basis:

1. **There is a growing discrepancy between national training capability and the demand for trained educational leaders.** The number of institutions and programs devoted to preparing educational leaders has grown very rapidly during the past few decades (Culbertson, 1972), and the forces which precipitated this fast growth are still at work, thus a further increase in this training capability can be projected. However, at the same time, public school enrollments and the demand for educational leaders in the 1980's will be significantly smaller than in the 1970's. As a result, education in the future faces increased difficulties with the placement of newly trained leaders, with a decreased mobility of current administrators, and with a reduction in the attractiveness of careers in educational leadership.

2. **There is a discrepancy between increasing specialization within educational leadership and the growing need for more effective integration among specializations.** Recent years have seen a considerable growth in specialization of educational leadership; for example, specialty areas of research, synthesis, development, special education, law, financing, organization development, operations research, and so forth. A companion of such growing specialization has been an increasing fragmentation in the professional preparation of educational leaders. Conversely, there is a growing demand upon practicing educational administrators to display breadth and depth in many specialty areas.

3. **There is a discrepancy between the expectations of citizens and students and the perceived performance of educational institutions.** The disenchantment of many toward schools and higher education institutions is well known. Resulting criticism has produced a significant call for educational reform and suggestions for the alternative school. However, no particularly feasible substitute for the massive institution of nation-wide school systems has yet been conceived. We are still in what Michael Marion (1972) has described as "an era of paradigm search." Therefore, as society's expectations increase, the demands upon educational leadership become greater. The

discrepancy between the performance of educational institutions and the societal expectations becomes more significant.

4. **There is a discrepancy between the availability of theories, concepts, and information, and their application in the context of educational leadership practice.** Recent years have seen an increase in the amount of knowledge that has been generated which bears upon educational leadership. However, less progress has been made in applying this knowledge, although there is an increasing need for the more effective application of knowledge in schools.

It appears that the emerging concept of right to an education has significance and impact upon all the previously stated problem areas. For example, the right to an education may be a direct result of the discrepancy between societal expectations and educational institution performance. However, the focus of this paper is upon the discrepancy in knowledge and knowledge utilization.

The significant increase in available knowledge is due in part to education reaching beyond its own discipline to the social and behavioral sciences. Additionally, educational research is now a legitimate area of investigation for a variety of disciplines, e.g., law, medicine, and so forth. Such new knowledge increases the challenge to discover more efficient ways to utilize knowledge within the changing context of schools.

There are numerous illustrations available that much existing knowledge has not been effectively applied except in experimental, demonstration, or pilot context. The Special Education Leadership Training Institute under Maynard Reynolds' leadership, The Bureau for Education of the Handicapped, and others, have sponsored the development of a number of innovative approaches. Evelyn Deno (1973) suggests that these edge-cutting efforts in knowledge utilization have centered in three areas of innovation:

1. College/University Training Programs.

2. Resource Teacher models.

3. Restructuring the whole school delivery system.

Many of the difficult questions and barriers to adoption (Reynolds, 1973, p. 180) of these new approaches (Deno, 1973, p. 171) appear to be *primarily* related to the need for effective, competent, educational leaders.

There are a number of explanations for the lack of effective knowledge application:

1. Innovative examples of knowledge application have often had substantial support from federal monies, and successful adoption and diffusion is viewed as impossible without these additional resources.

2. Innovations have failed to spread due to the lack of effective models for diffusion and adoption.

3. Highly specialized personnel, generally unavailable, have been made available to these few edge-cutting efforts.

4. Successful innovations have been viewed as experimental or pilot in nature; therefore, they have not come under the scrutiny nor the attack of various societal elements and have, as a result, experienced fewer inhibiting constraints.

5. Rare competence has been present in the educational leadership of exemplary efforts in knowledge utilization.

It would be my contention that quality educational leadership can overcome many of the inhibitors to knowledge application that have been previously mentioned. For example, the effective leader is successful in developing financial resources; provides mechanisms for the diffusion and adoption of innovation; accummulates staff of specialized talent; and responds effectively to societal pressures. I would further contend that effective leadership can be enhanced and developed by appropriate and effective training. Specifically, I would like to mention some of the training implications as I see them for the development of educational leadership which can have the greatest impact on the education of handicapped youngsters.

It appears to me that special education leadership must be trained to: 1) create new models for the delivery of services to handicapped pupils; 2) apply existing models and disseminate the success or failure of such models; 3) be prepared to function as change agents within various educational agencies; 4) be prepared to serve cooperatively with personnel in general education; 5) utilize existing manpower and financial resources; 6) develop new resources.

The inclusion of the following variables would appear to enhance the development of such effective training for educational leaders:

1. There must be a focus on in-service training as well as upon

pre-service training (where to date the primary focus has been). As enrollments decline, resources diminish, and the discrepancy between supply and demand increases, it becomes quite clear that the improvement of educational leadership cannot depend upon "new blood." Effective leadership must be developed among existing personnel.

2. Closely related to the necessity of focusing upon in-service or continuing education must be the development of linkages between universities and school systems. Universities and school systems have unique and complementary resources and capabilities for the training of educational leaders. Both universities and school systems are conceptually very similar with many of the same constraints, weaknesses and strengths. For example, both are very internally oriented; their reward structure is basically an internal one (promotions, position, and so forth); suspicious of the other and of outside forces; disrespectful of outside talent; financially pressed; and currently under severe attack by societal elements. Not only is training of the highest quality and greatest relevance dependent upon the interaction of both educational institutions, but their chances of "survival" are greatly increased.

3. Leadership training must reflect an integration of both general and special education. As the concept of "mainstreaming" gains support, as disenchantment with isolated educational programs develops, as the validity of traditional placement procedures comes under question, and as constitutional questions arise bearing upon due process and right to education, it becomes clear that general and special education must cooperatively work for solutions. A noteable attempt in this regard has been the General/Special Education Administration Consortium which has operated the past two years under the auspices of UCEA, and has had as a primary mission the integration of general and special education administration preparation programs.

4. An effective utilization of special facilities must be made; for example, training must include interaction with such significant existing and emerging resources as the National Center for Law and the Handicapped, The Council for Exceptional Children, ERIC Clearinghouse, the National Center for Media and Materials for the Handicapped, the National Academy of the American Association of School Administrators, the University Council for Educational Administration, The Center for the Advanced Study of Education Administration, and others.

5. The concept of field-based or clinical experiences must begin to receive greater emphasis. Cognitive, content-related training in

traditional classroom environments has merit and is an essential aspect of training; however, as the speed of change increases significantly in our society (Toffler, 1967), it becomes more and more important to develop mechanisms that allow training to include reality-based components.

6. Training must be redesigned in order to prepare personnel for roles not widely prevalent in public school systems and/or for roles not yet in existence; for example, individuals prepared as change agents (similar to the agricultural field agent), individuals prepared as futurists with skill in the application of technological forecasting methods, and so forth.

7. Training should begin preparing proactive leaders. For example, content of training should include techniques and methods (Technological forecasting methods) which give administrators futuristic planning data.

8. Training must begin to incorporate specialized materials and techniques:

a. CEC (supported by the Special Education Leadership Training Institute) has developed a film entitled, "Those Other Kids," which supplies in a powerful format relevant information related to appropriate educational decisions for handicapped students and should be utilized widely.

b. DonRoy Hafner and colleagues at the Region XIII Education Service Center in Austin, Texas (also supported by the Special Education Leadership Training Institute) have developed training materials which focus upon the school principal. The content is related primarily to alternative instructional arrangements for handicapped students available within the traditional or regular educational program.

c. Jack Cawley and Bill Korba at the University of Connecticut (supported by the Special Education LTI) have developed a series of simulation experiences in filmed media which are designed to help prepare educational leaders to deal with many of the problems associated with the education of handicapped youngsters.

d. Phil Cartwright and colleagues at the Pennsylvania State University have developed computer assisted instruction (CAI) materials designed to give special education information to regular educational personnel.

e. Under the auspices of The University Council for Educational Administration, a number of training materials have been developed which have relevance to the training of educational leaders. Of special importance are a group of multi-media simulation training materials that are currently in the final stages of reproduction and will be available for dissemination the first of the year (1974). These materials simulate the role of the Special Education Director of a large urban school system, with content composed of problems and issues special education administrators face or could be expected to face in the future. Such content is presented through the techniques of written in-basket items (letters, memos, and so forth), filmed confrontations or interruptions, and audio taped materials (interrupting phone calls, and so forth). The materials allow training to be presented in a reality-oriented environment, which can facilitate relevant training in both pre-service and in-service contexts. This particular package, known as SEASIM (Special Education Administration Simulation in Monroe City), contains five specific components that can be used individually or jointly over training periods lasting from one year to short one- or two-day workshops. The components are: 1) **Continuum of Service Component**, which deals with the concept of "mainstreaming," and organizational arrangements which facilitate the maintenance or re-integration of handicapped students into the normal educational program; 2) **Curriculum issues confronting Special Education**; 3) **Issues related to the identification and classification of students**; 4) **Financial considerations bearing upon Special Education**; 5) **Special Education Program Evaluation.** Specific materials contained within each of these components are designed to facilitate the training of communication, decision-making, human relations, conflict management, and other leadership skills.

By basing these particular training materials within the context of "Monroe City," a number of additional materials are made available; specifically, three previous role simulations (in the same format as SEASIM) already exist and have specific materials that are highly relevant to special education leadership. These specific simulation materials are for the roles – principal of elementary school, principal of junior high school, and principal of senior high school. Additionally, a role simulation for the school psychologist (PSYCHSIM) will be available the first of the year (1974).

Not only are simulation training materials available, but a range of other instructional materials have been developed through UCEA; specifically, such materials as the instructional filmed case "Special Education Placement and the Law;" three written cases related specifically to special education issues; "best lectures" on audio cassette dealing with issues such as classroom disturbance, continuum of special education services, and so forth; conceptual papers related to: theories for special education, delivery of special education services, research topics in special education; audio cassette presentations of a conceptual framework for understanding recent litigation in special education, and new administrative techniques such as organization development (O.D.). A book describing, illustrating and applying fourteen technological forecasting methods will be available in February, 1974 (Hencley, S.; Yates, J., 1974). Under development are a series of trend analyses which bear upon special education, and a Delphi study which looks at special education during the time frame of 1975 to the year 2000. Altogether there are some 50 specific products recently developed within the context of UCEA which relate to the development of special education leaders.

It would be hoped and anticipated that, with the developing concern for the training of educational leaders, and the emergence of new conceptualizations, new techniques, and new materials for the training of such leaders, the barriers to right to education will be reduced, and society's attempts to develop educational adjustments for handicapped students will be more successful.

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RIGHT TO AN EDUCATION MANDATE: IMPACT ON PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS

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I think we would all agree that special education is experiencing a period of significant and rapid change. There are various trends which are emerging. Some of these trends promise to lead to profound changes in the way society provides educational services for the handicapped. Some of these trends show promise of decreasing the requirements for highly specialized personnel who work exclusively with exceptional children. On the contrary there are other trends which call for an increased number of specialists competent to provide the new or expanding special education programs which would be responsive to the demands imposed by handicapped children, parents, professional special educators, taxpayers, legislators, and others.

Some of the trends that appear to be imminent are seen by special educators as being highly favorable, with the potential to provide better educational services to more handicapped children. Then on the other hand there are still other trends that are viewed with great concern as representing a setback to the progress already made.

Today we could say that the special educator could and has no doubt become discouraged at times because of his inability to be all things to all people but things could be worse.

Let me share a short letter some good friends of mine received from their daughter who left for college in September.

Please picture yourself as the parent of this teenager, keeping in mind that this is an only child and that this is her first experience away from home.

> Dear Mother and Dad:
>
> Since I left for college I have been remiss in writing and I am sorry for my thoughtlessness in not having written before. I will bring you up to date now, but before you read on, please sit down. You are not to read any further unless you are sitting down. Okay?

Well then, I am getting along pretty well now. The skull fracture and concussion I got when I jumped out of the window of my dormitory when it caught on fire shortly after my arrival here, is pretty well healed now. I only spent two weeks in the hospital and now I can see almost normally and only get those sick headaches once a day. Fortunately, the fire in the dormitory, and my jump was witnessed by an attendant at the gas station near the dorm, and he was the one who called the Fire Department and the ambulance. He also visited me in the hospital and since I had nowhere to live because of the burnt-out dormitory, he was kind enough to invite me to share his apartment with him. It's really a basement room but it's kind of cute. He is a very fine boy and we have fallen madly in love and are planning to get married. We haven't selected the exact date yet but it will be before my pregnancy begins to show.

Yes, Mother and Dad, I am pregnant. I know how much you are looking forward to being grandparents and I know you will welcome the baby and give it the same love, devotion and tender care you gave me when I was a child. The reason for the delay in our marriage is that my boy friend has a minor infection which prevents us from passing the blood tests and I carelessly caught it from him. I know that you will welcome him into our family with open arms. He is kind and, although not well educated, he is ambitious.

Now that I have brought you up to date, I want to tell you that there was no dormitory fire, I did not have a concussion or skull fracture, I was not in the hospital, I am not pregnant, I am not engaged, I am not infected, and there is no boy friend in my life. However, I am getting a D in history, and an F in science and I want you to see those marks in their perspective.

Your loving daughter,
SUSIE

So I hope we can all keep special education and the handicapped child in perspective when we set out to meet the demands placed upon us by legislation, the parents of handicapped children, parent organizations and public campaigns.

I think from the very beginning it must be agreed that the explanation, development, and implementation of professional standards for the administration of special education requires an initial consideration of the major goals for which special education exists and the more specific objectives basic to the attainment of the purpose of special education.

The purpose of special education as presented by the CEC Policies Commission in 1971 is to provide carefully individualized instruction for all children and youth, through all degrees of exceptionality and to enable all individuals to contribute to society in terms of whatever potential ability they possess.

If we attempt to translate this purpose for special education into general goals we could include the following which would apply to most levels of instruction and in most locales throughout the country.

1. Extend the opportunity for every individual to be educated to the full extent of his capacities, whatever they may be.

2. Guarantee by law that exceptional children and youth cannot be denied educational services or excluded from programs except under extraordinary and carefully defined circumstances with clearly established review procedures.

3. Assure that exceptional children and youth and their families understand their rights and that all public and private programs utilizing public funds to be open to review to protect the rights of the individual.

4. Make available a full continuum of instructional and other needed services so that the program provided each individual may be in response to the particular constellation of factors which makes each situation unique.

5. Develop increasing varieties of educational alternatives which permit the provision of services within the regular school framework, emphasizing flexibility of opportunity for the complete range of individual differences, among children, including those usually classified as exceptional.

Individuals working on the Professional Standards/Guidelines Project for the Council for Exceptional Children set for one of their goals the task of determining what special educators felt was in the future for special education. The investigators were of the opinion that the obtained information would assist them in reformulating professional standards and guidelines for CEC.

In January, 1973, a questionnaire was sent to a variety of CEC members which included members of the Council of Administrators of Special Education. These individuals were asked to indicate not more than five changes they expected to occur in the field of special education in the next decade. The second part of the document asked these same individuals to rate certain topics according to their possible importance in the future of special education.

For the purpose of this paper, I would like to discuss those response categories which are most related to the administrator of special education and for which it will be necessary to establish professional standards if this has not already been done.

As I continue, it can be noted that many of the categories of changes in special education which are predicted to take place in the next decade are already with us and, therefore, should require an immediate review and possible revision of professional standards by the special education administrator.

At this point, I will share with you some of the predicted changes predicted by this analysis and will discuss how some of these changes have been provided for in new Missouri special education legislation effective July 1, 1974.

The first predicted change to take place within the decade is one that is already with us in many school districts throughout the country.

Predicted Changes:

1. More mainstreaming.

Going along with the concept of more mainstreaming would be the idea of fewer self-contained special classes and more resource rooms.

If this approach becomes a reality within our districts and public educators receive directives that more children remain in the mainstream while having special education programs and services brought to them, we will see a definite need for a redeployment of staff and the retraining of regular education administrators and teachers. For some programs special education will and should continue to operate as a separate entity; for others it must relate more closely to general education.

While legislation and parental groups concerned with various handicaps need to be preserved, the focus of effort now needs to be pointed toward altering regular education rather than building a separate special educational system. To the maximum extent possible, special education leadership personnel should seek to develop among all school faculties attitudes and skills needed to accommodate the unusual needs of pupils within the regular classroom.

Not only are more regular educators needed who are able to deal effectively with the handicapped children in their classrooms but more and better teamwork is also needed between the regular and special educators to better serve the educational needs of the children.

In both regular and special education teacher training programs those responsible for this training need to be cognizant of the impact that the mandate concerning the right to an education for all handicapped children and youth will have upon the special education programs of the community. The type of training the individuals receive will be an important factor in the establishment of professional standards by the local school administrator. There must be a responsibility assumed by the teacher training institutions for the preparation of general education teachers who do not fear the handicapped, and for special education personnel who can relate better to the general education program as well as to the provision of direct service to the profoundly handicapped.

In Section 3 of Missouri House Bill 474, for example, it is stated that no child may be denied services provided by this act because of his handicapping condition. It goes on to say that to the maximum extent practicable handicapped and severely handicapped children shall be educated along with children who do not have handicaps and shall attend regular classes. Impediments to learning and to the normal functioning of such children in the regular school environment shall be overcome whenever practicable by the provision of special aids and services rather than by separate schooling for the handicapped.

The second major category of change was in the:

2. Decreasing numbers of special classes for the mildly handicapped.

Again we are talking about placing these individuals back in the regular classroom and offering supportive services to them.

This will mean that our regular classroom teachers will need considerable in-service training in methods and techniques to use in working with the exceptional child. Special materials, facilities and teaching aids will have to be available for the teacher and child when such resources will enhance the learning process.

Special educators with knowledge of specialized types of instruction or techniques can help create a needed additional resourcefulness in regular teachers and can provide adjunct services to the work of the regular teacher.

Through special summer institutes, workshops and similar in-service programs, the attitudes, knowledge and skills of regular teachers can be changed considerably to allow them to more readily accommodate handicapped children in their classrooms.

It may be necessary to employ teacher aides to provide assistance in the regular classroom.

A school district may be required to provide school social work services to and on the behalf of students whose educational, social or emotional adjustment is restricted due to factors of family circumstances or cultural and environmental implications. In the area of the visually handicapped, for example, typists and braillists may have to be employed for the preparation of materials for these individuals. Physical and occupational therapeutic services may be an activity which public schools will be called upon to provide if this type of service will enhance the educational opportunities of the handicapped child. Psychiatry is another discipline that we may need to utilize for children with behavioral disorders. In other words, school districts may be required in the future to provide supportive services when it is determined that such services would effectively enhance the educational development of the exceptional child whether he be in a special class or in the mainstream of education. This will require the establishment of professional standards to meet these needs.

The Missouri legislation provides for a reimbursement of $4,000 to a school district for each professional staff member, employed to work full time with handicapped or severely handicapped children. For classes of handicapped children, $2,000 shall be received for each full time teacher aide.

3. Decategorization and delabeling.

We need to concern ourselves with special instructional systems that carry major implications for the organization of educational programs and for teacher preparation.

We should not emphasize medical definitions. Instead of focusing attention on categories of handicap and special placements in schools based on those handicaps, the system should stress the functional competencies of children and their developmental needs.

Even in Missouri, with new legislation, we have not been able to completly eliminate categories and labels. We are already experiencing, for example, a problem as to whether a child should be labeled as educable mentally retarded if he technically qualifies, or as a child with a general learning disability.

4. Age extensions (early identification and placement)

Administrators of special education are becoming more concerned about early intervention activities which will prevent or alleviate a child's educational deficiencies. Pre-school programs are now viewed as a means through which fewer children will eventually need special services and educational modifications once they reach the age for regular school enrollment. We will no doubt see expanding infant and parent education programs. There will be expanded secondary and vocational school programs and a need for more adult education for the handicapped. Again, professional standards will need to be established.

The Missouri legislation states that a school district may provide special educational services for children under 5 years of age, but not below the age of 3. State aid is available for these classes at reduced reimbursement.

5. New programs for children with severe handicapping conditions.

A great sense of public responsibility is currently being demonstrated for children who have severe handicaps, such as the severely mentally retarded and the multi-handicapped; e.g., the deaf-blind, the cerebral palsied – severely retarded, the blind-retarded and other combinations of handicaps. In some instances the educational needs of these children create requirements for personnel with training quite different from those of personnel working with children who belong to the higher prevalence handicapping conditions. Seriously handicapped children are equally entitled to the benefits of educational programming geared to their abilities in all areas of instruction including those of physical education, vocational education, recreation, and others. Personnel with training different from that usually supplied will be required to provide quality programs.

In Missouri, for example, the legislation states that no child may be denied services because of his handicapping condition. Under the terms of this legislation, the State Board of Education, rather than the local school, shall provide special educational services for all severely handicapped children residing in school districts which are not included in special districts, provided that such school districts are unable to provide appropriate programs of special instruction for severely handicapped children. This shall not prevent, however, any school district from independently conducting a program for severely handicapped children.

Also, administrators will have to establish standards for due process on exclusions from programs and will have to organize and administer appeal procedures.

In addition, each Missouri Board of Education must notify the parent or guardian of every child diagnosed, evaluated, reevaluated or assigned under the provision of this Act, of the results of any diagnosis, evaluation or reevaluation, the recommended assignment, change in assignment or denial of assignment of the child to a class or program. The notice shall advise the parent that upon request they shall be permitted to inspect all records pertaining to said child. The notice shall also contain information as to the procedure for requesting a review of any action taken by the Board of Education, and the parents must be told that they are entitled to a hearing on the action advised of in the notice.

Other Change Areas:

Another area in which administrators are becoming more involved is **deinstitutionalization**. As our institutions release individuals into the community and reserve their services for only the profoundly handicapped, more community based programs will be needed.

Special education administrators must become aware and involved in the rights and demands of these individuals and their families, and must establish direct or indirect service accommodations to fill the educational needs of these handicapped as they enter the community.

Of these areas of concern the one that needs much attention is the one that has been the focus of much parental and professional investigation and objection — that of the **use and misuse of psycho-**

logical instruments for the assessment of a child's mental capacity. Conferences and workshops have been held throughout the country which have dealt with the selection and utlization of instruments of measurement which are valid and reliable as well as culturally unbiased. Certainly professionals will need to establish their own criteria and standards in this area of assessment.

There are some other areas of great concern to administrators of special education such as the **need for improved curriculum and teaching methods, accountability, and establishing measurable goals and objectives** in all programs. Also, a greater use of volunteers will be required in the future.

I would like to conclude by telling you that the Council of Administrators of Special Education as a group realize that training programs for special education administrators in the past have not adequately prepared these administrators for the expanded roles for which they are now responsible. We feel that even recently trained administrators will need help in assuming their new roles in education.

In many instances, college personnel who are training special education administrators have only had a superficial understanding of the newly evolving competencies required. CASE as the primary organization for administrators of special education programs feels that it must launch a series of retraining efforts that will offer assistance to its members in performing more proficiently in the multifaceted responsibilities delegated to them.

To this end, CASE is submitting a proposal to the U.S. Office of Education which, if funded, will enable us to present four workshops of three days duration annually for three years in various parts of the country. During each of the workshops, which will be designed for special education administrators, participants will focus their attention upon six areas that have been identified by administrators as problem areas.

Through this mechanism, we hope to begin the task of training administrators to cope with new demands and philosophical approaches, and complement the work of others in development of revised professional standards.

part IV
programs and practices

THE ARMATAGE LEARNING CENTER: A SPECIAL PUBLIC SCHOOL FOR SEVERELY LEARNING-DISABLED YOUTH

Marie Blackburn, Program Coordinator
Priscilla Spencer, Program Lead Teacher

Minnesota state law (M.S.A. 120.17) requires school districts to provide appropriate special education services to all handicapped children of school age who reside in each district. Among the children considered to be "handicapped" are those with "special learning and behavior problems" (SLBP), which includes children who are learning disabled, emotionally disturbed and/or socially maladjusted. The law recognizes that the intensity and kinds of services needed to educate these children varies along a continuum from full time placement in a regular educational program, with supportive services as necessary, to residential placements.

The Minneapolis Public Schools' philosophy is that the majority of children with learning disabilities can be adequately served in the mainstream program if supplemental services are provided to the child's teacher or to the child directly, but that there are some children who require the structure, opportunity for individualization of instruction (and when necessary, individual instruction) afforded in a special school. The Armatage Learning Center was established by the Minneapolis Public Schools in 1972 to serve these more severely learning disabled children.

This center, established initially to serve up to fifteen students selected from seventy elementary schools, was composed of two classrooms located in a regular Minneapolis elementary school. Each classroom contained 7-8 children drawn from the entire city of Minneapolis. The center was staffed with two fully certified SLBP classroom teachers, two half-time aides and a Program Coordinator. The Program Coordinator also held a part-time appointment as instructor for the University of Minnesota, Department of Special Education Training Program for Teachers of Special Learning and Behavior Problems. During the year a total of 18 graduate students served a practicum at the Armatage Learning Center, tutoring or instructing small groups of children. This was a very important facet of the program as it helped provide the manpower to implement a highly individualized program.

Program Goals and Objectives

The purposes of the Armatage Learning Center during 1972-73 were to:

1. serve as a pilot program to show that these children can learn basic academic skills when special techniques are applied in an intensive all day program.

2. build a strong enough skill base in the child to return him to mainstream education either with or without support help at the earliest possible date.

3. to provide a setting in which graduate students in the University SLBP Training program could not only work directly with children with severe learning problems but where they could also receive supervision and instruction on-site rather than in a University classroom.

To achieve these goals program staff focused on three objectives:

1. Increase the **accuracy** of skill performance.
2. Increase the **rate** of skill performance.
3. Increase the **rate of acquisition** of skill as measured by standardized measures.

The Student Population

Children eligible for services at the Learning Center present evidence of serious learning disability as indicated by:

1. academic performance seriously out of phase with perceived academic potential.

2. demonstrated difficulty in coping with the academic expectation of the regular classroom day to day program.

3. difficulty as observed in current psychological testing and/or functional academic performance in one or more of the following areas: auditory perception, visual perception, fine or gross motor coordination, general body integration, attention and concentration, memory and language.

For example, several children were enrolled in the program with a marked difference between verbal and non-verbal I.Q.'s. For one boy this spread was over 50 points. Nine of the fourteen had some degree of difficulty perceiving information auditorially, two children had marked problems with visual discrimination and tracking. While a couple of the children could have been considered athletic, the majority exhibited some degree of gross motor problem. Fine motor control tended to appear adequate on the surface, as the children had acquired some splinter skills from years of practice. These did tend to break down under pressure to perform rapidly or where one would expect transfer to have taken place.

Problems with attention, concentration and memory were exhibited to some degree by all the children in the program.

In addition to the previously mentioned deficits, to be eligible for the program, the child's intellectual functioning should be such that the prognosis for significant academic growth is favorable. The children in the program during 1972-73 had a mean I.Q. of 104 with a range from 90 – 123.

Although many of the children accepted into the program have concurrent behavior problems which made it difficult to manage these children in their home school setting these problems were deemed not to be of the severe nature that would warrant the therapeutic focus of the Madison S.L.B.P. program or the St. Joseph's Day Care Center – both facilities for students with severe adjustment difficulties.

Before a child is accepted into the Center's program, evidence must be presented to show that appropriate program options have been utilized in the home school and/or determined by the Administrator for School Based (Mainstream) Serivces to be insufficient to meet their needs.

Table I shows some of the entering characteristics of the pupils accepted into the Armatage Program during 1972-73.

Table 1

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF ARMATAGE STUDENTS

	N	Mean	Range
Age	15	9 yr. 10 mo.	7 yrs. 4 mo. – 12 yrs. 0 mo.
Prior Yrs. in School	15	4 yr. 9 mo.	2 yrs. 2 mo. – 6 yrs. 5 mo.
I.Q.	15	104	90 – 123
Males	15	–	–
Females	0	–	–

Other data on the student population [illegible] that only two had not had previous special education resource programs or other services; that four were on medication for either seizures or hyperactivity; and that twelve of the fifteen had not repeated a grade.

The Program

Primary emphasis in this program is placed in increasing the rate of acquisition of oral and written language, including specific reading and language skills; basic mathematic skills; and perceptual motor skills.

Therefore, some curriculum normally found in a regular classroom was eliminated in order to concentrate both time and energy of pupils and teachers to the basic academic skills of reading, language and math. A typical daily schedule is outlined in Figure 1.

Figure 1

TYPICAL STUDENT PROGRAM

2 Hours	Tutoring Block in Reading and Math
½ Hour	Fine Motor Activity
½ Hour	Language Development
½ Hour	Gross Motor Activity
45 Min.	Lunch and Recess
1 Hr. 45 Min.	Related Reading Experiences (i.e., Read orally to: 1. Tape, 2. Aide, 3. Teacher; Workbook Activities; Language Master)

The need to eliminate the problem of disparity of experiences the child had perhaps previously had, when he perhaps had success for an hour a day in a resource room and then returned to the classroom to fail for the remainder of the day, was clear. In fact, a frequent comment made by school personnel referring children was, "An hour a day of special help is not enough" or "He can do resource room work but the classroom work is too difficult.

Since all the children who entered the program at Armatage Learning Center had in their past school experiences met with failure to learn to read from a variety of materials which rely heavily on the visual approach, the staff at Armatage made the decision to use the Orton-Gillingham Approach as the basic reading program.

While criticism could be made for using the Orton Gillingham Approach with all children, our rationale was that when used in conjunction with the Gallistel-Ellis Teaching and Testing Materials it provides a highly structured program that moves slowly, yet consistently enough for the child to experience continuous success. Adjustments for pupil individuality are easy to make.

This combined program also allows one to utilize all modalities to take advantage of the child's strongest modality while at the same time attending to his weak modalities in hopes of strengthening those areas in which he has problems.

In addition, one of the determining factors in utilizing the Orton-Gillingham Sequence was that it is possible, with a few minor adjustments as to the order in which sounds are taught, to use support reading materials from a number of reading series. This was important as staff wanted to give the child as much opportunity as possible to read material in the afternoon which gave him practice on the skills he had been taught in the tutoring or small group instruction sessions in the morning.

It must be emphasized here that this reading experience in the afternoon was intended as just a series of successful reading sessions. While the phonetically regular reading materials of S.R.A., Singer Structural Reading Program, Merrill Linguistic Readers and the Sullivan Programmed Readers were used, we did not make any attempt to teach according to the manuals of those series. Aside from the self-checking type of activity a child did as he progressed through the Sullivan Programmed Readers, for example, little or no instruction was done involving comprehension.

Exceptions to this approach were made for those children who were getting ready to return to mainstream education. At this point, the home school was asked to provide materials from all reading groups that were currently functioning in the receiving classroom. The child then worked specifically on skills that he would need to know upon return to the home school.

When a student entered the program he was given a series of tests which were part of the pre- and post-test battery for evaluation purposes, and which also served as diagnostic measures to determine his placement on the reading and math sequences used at the center.

Placement on the reading sequence depended largely on how a child scored on the Gallistel-Ellis Phonetically Regular Reading and Spelling Test. This test taps a child's ability to decode and encode words in eight major phonic categories, as follows:

1. CVC
2. Blends
3. V-CE
4. Soft c.g., tch dge
5. Vowel combinations
6. R-combinations
7. Words with easy endings
8. Multi-syllable words

The Gallistel-Ellis Continuous Progress Teaching and Testing materials were used to check the student's movement on a weekly basis through the Orton-Gilligham sequence of reading skills. The 37 Gallistel-Ellis categories illustrating the breakdown of these skills are listed on the G.E. Student Recording Form (Figure 2).

Placement for an individual student in the sequence was determined by first noting the skills the student had mastered at 80 to 100% on the Gallistel-Ellis Phonetically Regular Reading and Spelling Test. (Figure 3, G.E. Test % graph). G.E. Categories with corresponding skills were then indicated on the Student Recording Form as being mastered on entry.

Actual reading instruction would begin in categories of skills where the student scored between 60 and 80% on the Gallistel-Ellis Test (Figure 3, G.E. Test % graph). G.E. Categories with corresponding skills were then indicated on the Student Recording Form

The Gallistel-Ellis Test served as a diagnostic instrument to determine what a student could do and could not do in the Orton Gillingham sequence of skills, and directed the teacher to begin instruction in those categories where students scored below 80% in reading and/or spelling. Categories taken from the Gallistel-Ellis Continuous Progress materials in which a student did not demonstrate 80 – 100% mastery on the Gallistel-Ellis Test became that child's long term behaviorial objectives in reading and spelling.

G.E. Student Recording Form

Student:

Reading Words

Enter score each test period as a fraction: No. correct words / Total No. of words

Category Enter Date:	5/16	5/21	5/29	6/4	6/11	7/4	7/11	7/18	7/25	8/1	
1. CVC (a) (bsfmt)	G-E TEST										
2. CVC (a) (h,j,n,p,l,b,s,fm,t)											
3. CVC (a) (-r, hard g,d)								Mastered			
4. CVC (a) hard c,k,ck,nd,w,qu)								on entry			
5. CVC (a) (all single cons. except v,y,x,z)								G-E Test			5-16-73
6. CVC (i) (all single cons, ck)											
7. CVC (a,i) (all single cons.)		8/10	10/10	9/10							Mastered 6-4-73
8. CVCC (a,i) (ck,ss,ff,ll,zz)		6/10	9/10	10/10		5/5					Mastered 7-4-73
9. CVCC (a,i) (ing,ang,ink,ank)		8/10	10/10	10/10							Mastered 6-4-73
10. CCVCC (a,i) (sh,th,ch,wh, ck,ng,nk)		9/10	10/10	8/10							Mastered 6-4-73
11. CVC (o) (all single cons)		8/10	10/10	10/10							Mastered 6-4-73
12. CVC (a,i,o) (all single cons)		9/10	10/10	10/10							Mastered 6-4-73
13. CVCC (o) (ck,ll)		10/10	10/10	9/10							Mastered 6-4-73
14. CVCC (o) (st,ff,ft,ng,ss)				8/10	8/10	5/5					Mastered 7-4-73
15. CCVCC (a,i,o) (beg. blends, digraphs, end. blends)				5/5	9/10	5/5					Mastered 7-4-73
16. CVC (a,i,o) (beg. scr, spr, squ,str,spl)				9/10	8/10	4/5					Mastered 7-4-73
17. CVC (a,i,o,u)				6/10	9/10	5/5	5/5				Mastered 7-11-73
18. CVC (a,e,i,o,u)					8/10	5/5	5/5				Mastered 7-11-73
19. CVCC & CCVCC (a,e,i,o,u)						8/10	4/5	5/5			Mastered 7-18-73
20. short vowel 2 syllable words (optional)							3/5	4/5	5/5	4/5	Mastered 8-1-73
21. CVCC (a,e,i,o,u) tch,dge,ck)				4/10	8/10	3/5	10/10	10/10			Mastered 7-18-73
22. $\bar{y},\bar{o},\bar{e}$ at end of 1 syll. word					10/10	2/5	3/5	5/5	5/5	5/5	Mastered 8-1-73

Figure 2 (Part 1 of 2)
G.E. STUDENT RECORDING FORM

Category	Enter Date:	5/16	5/21	5/29	6/4	6/11	7/4	7/11	7/18	7/25	8/1	
23.	Magic e (single cons)					8/10	0/5		5/5	4/5	5/5	Mastered 8-1-73
24.	Magic e (double cons)								4/5	4/5	4/5	Mastered 8-1-73
25.	soft c & g (tch, dge, nge ge,ce,nce, se=z)						4/5	4/5	4/5	—	—	Mastered 7-18-73
26.	CVVC (ai,ay,ow,oa,oe, ee,ea,ui,ue,ie,igh)										4/5	
27.	CCVVCC (ai,ay,ow,oa oe,ee,ea,ui,ue,ie,igh)											
28.	CVVC (oo,ou,ow,au,aw, oi,oy,ew,eu,all,alk)											
29.	CCVCC (oo,ou,ow,au aw,oi,oy,ew,eu,all,alk)											
30.	Short vowels with r											
31.	Long vowels with r											
32.	CCVVCC (augh,ind,ild,ie ea,neigh,old)											
33.	wr,ph,kn,gh,gn											
3[illegible]	Closed syllables with y and (c) le endings and with 2 closed syllables											
35.	Two closed and open syllables w/y,ly,le,s,es,ed,er,est,ing)											
36.	Two syllable words with soft c and g											
37.	Prefixes: a,al,ad,de,ex,in,re Suffixes: ar,er,or,tion,sion, ness,ment											
38.	Multisyllable words											

This same format is used to chart

Reading Sentences

Spelling Words

Spelling Sentences

Figure 2 (Part 2 of 2)

G.E. STUDENT RECORDING FORM

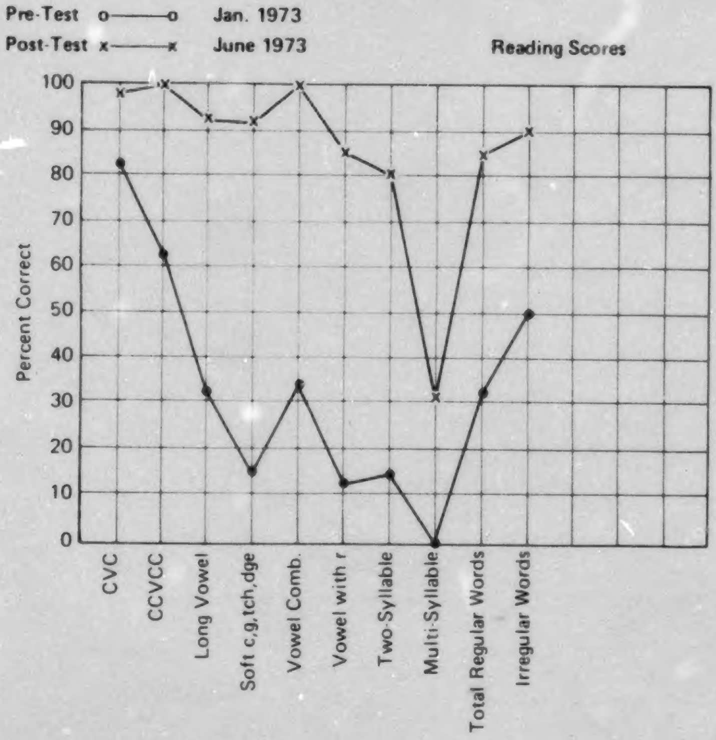


Figure 3

SCORES ACHIEVED ON GALLISTEL-ELLIS PHONETICALLY REGULAR READING AND SPELLING TEST

Students were tested weekly in categories where instruction was taking place. The skills in each category were tested by requiring the student to use those skills in both reading and spelling words in isolation and reading and spelling sentences. Criterion for mastery in each category was 80 – 100% accuracy three times in a row with an interval of five days between testing. Each time the student scored at least 80% in a given category, a square would be filled in red on the G. E. Student Recording Form adjacent to the appropriate category and in the column designated for recording testing during that week.

To increase the meaningfulness of academic progress through the Gallistel-Ellis Continuous Progress Teaching and Testing categories for parents, teachers and students, a cumulative mastery charting procedure was adopted.

Using this charting procedure, a student plotted one point for every 80 – 100% mastery achieved during the week as recorded on the G. E. Student Recording Form. The charting was cumulative. Therefore, each point did not reflect a specific skill, but rather reflected cumulative mastery points over a given period of time on the Gallistel-Ellis skill categories.

The charts were used to give feedback to the student and teacher on whether the student was meeting his reading behavioral objectives within a specified period of time. This feedback was accomplished by plotting the desired progress line on the student's graph.

Since each G. E. category, or behavioral objective, was considered mastered after at least three 80% masteries in that category, the teacher multiplied the number of her behavioral objectives (G. E. categories) by three. The product represented the total 80 – 100% masteries possible if all behavioral objectives were completely mastered by the end of a given instructional period. The number of total possible masteries was plotted on the last date of instruction, and a line drawn from that point to the beginning date of instruction, (See Figure 4).

Using this technique, both teacher and student could see graphically how the student was progressing toward his goal, and the teacher could plan interventions to maximize performance and evaluate the effectiveness of an intervention on the basis of data. Two cumulative progress charts were kept in G. E. Reading Words and Sentences and one for charting G. E. Spelling Words and Sentences.

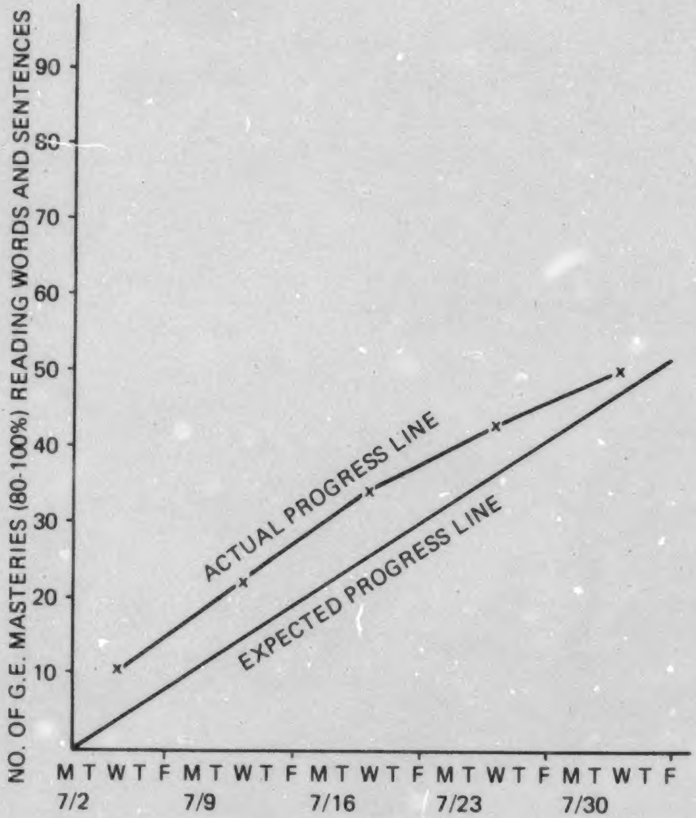


Figure 4
STUDENT GRAPH

Testing for mastery involved some arbitrary decisions on the part of the staff. Eighty percent correct was considered mastery level and three mastery scores were required before it was considered a mastery score. A one week interval between mastery tests was required so it was necessary for at least three weeks to lapse between initial and final mastery. This was done to assure locking in a skill before moving on. We believe that for many learning disabled children the reason that they don't retain skills is that they never had a firm grasp on them in the first place, and that the often followed procedure of teacher teaches, child demonstrates, teacher moves on to new concepts, causes the child to drop out what was presumably learned material.

I might add that we found ourselves guilty of this error in teaching the math area. For many children the staff moved on to new concepts once the student could demonstrate performance – we failed however to be certain he could do so consistently over time. Steps have been taken to correct this and this year recording sheets similar to the G. E. Recording Charts have been provided to test proficiency on specific behavioral objectives to assure final mastery of skills in math.

Requiring final mastery on a given instructional category before dropping it out of the teaching sequence in no way precludes adding new categories if it was felt the student could handle them. In practice, almost all children were being taught and tested on more than one category.

In addition to striving for accuracy in reading words in a given category, children were also encouraged to increase the rate at which they could decode words. This is perhaps one of the unique features of the reading program at Armatage.

Once a child achieved his first initial mastery score on the G. E. Recording Charts he was given a corresponding word list containing 100 words. The child then read these as rapidly as he could for one minute and his scores were recorded on graph paper. Also, a one minute sampling of a child's ability to read in context during the time he read to the teacher in the afternoon was taken.

In analyzing charted data, one finding was that working on increasing a child's ability to read words in isolation tended to produce the same growth slope as his ability to read those words in context. We did get faster rates on reading in context which is probably due to several factors:

1. The material makes sense and therefore flows more easily.

2. The repetitions of words, especially articles, prepositions and pronouns increases the probability of recognition.

3. Unintentionally, some of the word lists we made for words in isolation contained words that became tongue twisters when you tried to say them in the order they appeared. In fact, when one looked for explanations for the bounce up and down from the trend lines it could most often be accounted for according to which copy of the word list a child was given. Some of the word lists were considerably more difficult for all children.

We would like to be able to say that the Standard Behavior Chart was used to make all sorts of program decisions – unfortunately we weren't at the stage of making the best use of data as some information was on one type of graph, other information on another.

At this time, however, the staff is in a position to make data collection systems more efficient and in turn to make better educational decisions based on the data. We were and still are somewhat "green," yet as a staff we are committed to the concepts of program accountability and also to pupil accountability. For these children have in the past experienced so much failure and frustration in school that we feel we must be able to prove to them they are indeed making progress.

Program Evaluation

The Gallistel-Ellis Continuous Progress charts provided us with a device to document success in achieving specific goals of accuracy of skill performance. Using the Standard Behavior Chart, we were able to document an increase in the rate of which the child could perform those skills where he had achieved accuracy. Thus we were able to continually prove to the children that they were making progress and also achieve our goal of being accountable to pupils.

Pre- and post-test evaluation was conducted using:

1. The Gallistel-Ellis Phonetically Regular Reading and Spelling test.

2. Wide Range Achievement test.

3. Spache Diagnostic Reading Scales (Instructional Reading) formed the basis of determining program accountability. These

results are given in Tables 2 and 3 and represent a mean time in the program of .6 year.

As was mentioned earlier, desired results in the area of math were not achieved. The mean gain on the WRAT Arithmetic Test was not statistically significant.

The mean gains of .7 year on the WRAT Spelling Test and 1.8 years on the Spache Instructional Reading were significant at the .05 level. A gain of 1.1 years on the WRAT Reading Test was significant at the .01 level.

Results of the Gallistel-Ellis Test of Phonetically Regular Reading and Spelling Words were translated into percentages rather than grade levels as these percentages represent actual skills acquired. These scores were particularly important as they are a direct reflection of whether or not we were successful using the Orton-Gillingham Approach and the Gallistel-Ellis Teaching Materials.

Table 2
ARMATAGE EVALUATION DATA
(Scores reported as grade level equivalents)

TEST	N	Pre-test		Post-test		
		Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean Gain*
WRAT Math	14	2.9	1.0	3.6	.9	.7 (a)
WRAT Reading	14	2.3	.6	3.4	.9	1.1 (b)
WRAT Spelling	14	2.1	.7	2.8	.7	.7 (c)
SPACHE Instructional Reading	13	2.4	1.5	4.2	1.8	1.8 (c)

a. Gain in WRAT Math is not significant.

b. Gain in WRAT Reading is significant at the .01 level.

c. Gain in WRAT Spelling and SPACHE Instructional Reading are significant at the .05 level.

* Mean time in the program was .6 of a year.

In looking at this data, and using the test as a measure of significance the mean Gallistel-Ellis gain of 20.3% in spelling was significant at the .05 level and the mean gain of 35.6% in reading was significant at the .01 level.

When the standardized test scores reported in table 2 are viewed in relation to past acquisition we find that the mean increase in rate of acquisition was as follows:

WRAT Math	1.7 times the previous rate
WRAT Spelling	3.5 times the previous rate
WRAT Reading	3.7 times the previous rate
Spache Instructional Reading	6.2 times the previous rate

Earlier in this discussion it was reported that the staff made an arbitrary decision to use a combination of the Orton-Gillingham Reading Approach and the Gallistel-Ellis Teaching and Testing Materials to form the core reading program and that the emphasis was placed on acquiring the skills of decoding and encoding. Little attention was given to the area of comprehension as we believed the students could comprehend the material if they could decode it. The results of the Spache Instructional Reading Test which measures comprehension as well as decoding shows that the students are acquiring skills in comprehension four times faster than previously.

These evaluations have formed the basis for continuing primary concentration on the basic skills. Changes in the program for 1973-74 are targeted primarily on ways to increase the rates of acquisition of skills. This year frequency rates on the Standard Behavior Chart will be monitored on a two week basis, and interventions designed to increase acquisition rates more rapidly.

For the 1974-75 school year, use of the Orton-Gillingham approach in the primary room will continue. However, a decision was made to put the intermediate classrooms on the Schmerler Reading Materials. This decision was based on the belief that the Schmerler materials move more rapidly and will allow the older children to be able to handle more difficult material at an earlier date.

In summary, the Armatage Special School program designed for students with documented serious learning problems has completed its first year, and has expanded services to some twenty-five Minneapolis students. Data collected on student growth in especially reading skills has reflected considerable student growth, but has been more important in redirecting programs.

THE UNISTAPS PROJECT: A FAMILY ORIENTED INFANT/PRESCHOOL PROGRAM FOR HEARING IMPAIRED CHILDREN, 0-4, AND THEIR PARENTS

Winifred H. Northcott

Jayne V. Nelson

The UNISTAPS Project enjoys the distinction of being the single program in the First Chance network being developed by a state education agency; the grantee is the Minnesota State Department of Education and the Project Director is a formal member of the Special Education Section of that Department. Currently, there are 112 operational programs funded by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, U. S. Office of Education under P.L. 91-230, Title VI, Part C, Section 623, more comfortably known as the Handicapped Children's Early Education Program.

The laboratory program of the UNISTAPS Project is the regional infant/preschool public school program for hearing impaired children 0-4, and their parents located at Whittier School in Minneapolis, the host district. Funding sources of the regional laboratory program are as follows: federal (BEH) share – 19%; state aids, 39% (essential personnel, supplies; transportation aids; ½ unit foundation aid). Currently, in the 1973-1974 academic year, all staff salaries of members of the multidisciplinary team in the Minneapolis regional program are paid from local education agency funds (Independent School District Number 1, Minneapolis).

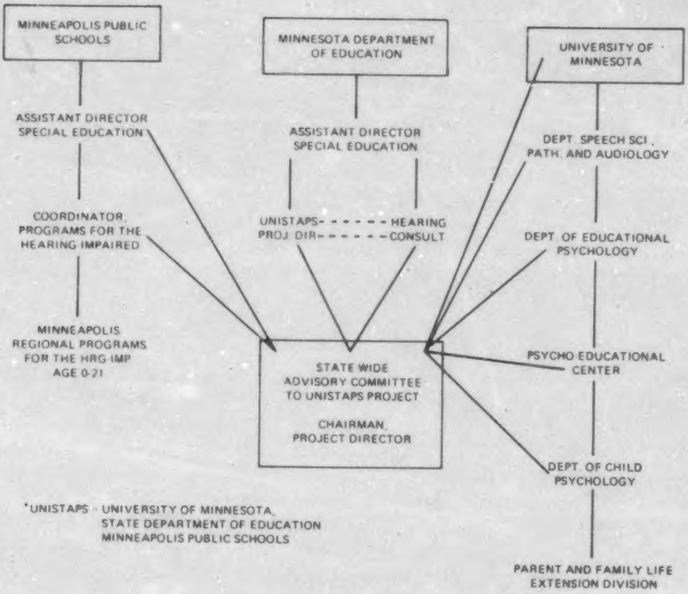
Since UNISTAPS is not exactly a household word, even in Minnesota, a definition of the acronym is appropriate.

UNI = University of Minnesota (consultant services relating to program components; curriculum; evaluation plan; in-service training; membership UNISTAPS Advisory Committee.

STA = State Department of Education in Minnesota (workshops, implementation of **State Guidelines**; outstate replication).

PS = public schools (laboratory program).

Since the laboratory program is administratively independent of the UNISTAPS Project, under the direction of the Minneapolis Coordi-


MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR SPECIAL EDUCATION
COORDINATOR, PROGRAMS FOR THE HEARING IMPAIRED
MINNEAPOLIS REGIONAL PROGRAMS FOR THE HRG IMP AGE 0-21
MINNESOTA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
ASSISTANT DIRECTOR SPECIAL EDUCATION
UNISTAPS PROJ DIR
HEARING CONSULT
STATE WIDE ADVISORY COMMITTEE TO UNISTAPS PROJECT
CHAIRMAN, PROJECT DIRECTOR
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
DEPT. SPEECH SCI., PATH. AND AUDIOLOGY
DEPT. OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CENTER
DEPT. OF CHILD PSYCHOLOGY
PARENT AND FAMILY LIFE EXTENSION DIVISION

*UNISTAPS = UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA,
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Figure 1
UNISTAPS* EXEMPLARY PRESCHOOL PROGRAM FOR HEARING-IMPAIRED CHILDREN, 0-6, AND THEIR FAMILIES

nator of Programs for the Hearing Impaired, the Minnesota State Department of Education has insured that a consortium effort among the University of Minnesota, the state education agency, and a local school district is integrated into the structural framework of the Project and has operated on this principle from the beginning of the funding operation, in July of 1969. The cooperative, consultative, coordinating nature of the relationship among the participating agencies and institutions has been carefully built into the system. We might add, parenthetically, that the first and second "shake-down years" remind me of Hickey in Eugene O'Neill's play, The **Iceman Cometh**, whom a reviewer characterized as a man "filled with confident misinformation" . . . in this instance, the parallel being drawn to the capabilities, capacities of individuals to address collectively to the identified deficits in the service delivery system for hearing impaired children, 0-4, and their parents.

Congressman Albert Quie, ranking Minority Member of the House Committee on Education and Labor has stated that "preschool programs should be tied as far as possible to the public schools."

Governor Calvin Rampton, of Utah, in presenting the Task Force Report as Chairman of the Education Commission of the States Early Childhood Project, stated "A major thrust of statewide publicly supported early childhood programs should be strengthening the role of the family as the first and most fundamental influence on child development."

I quote these sources because Dr. Edward Zigler, former Director of the Office of Child Development has stated that it is possible to find experts to support every model of early educational intervention that is being developed today. I believe this is indication of the healthy state of the emerging art of systematic programming for the very young child who is handicapped in the United States today.

UNISTAPS is a model, **not** THE model of educational services to a very young child who is hearing impaired. It does have internal consistency in terms of stated goals, objectives and activities described in a formal **Curriculum Guide-Hearing Impaired Children, 0-3, and Their Parents** (Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, 1537 35th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20007), and an evaluation plan including process and product objectives developed jointly with the Minneapolis staff under the direction of Dr. Robert Bruininks, Department of Special Education at the University of Minnesota as Evaluation Coordinator.

Historical Perspective: The question may well be asked, WHY, in this day of focus on non-categorical programming for children, with an emphasis on labeling the educational deficits in children and providing the support specialists required to maintain the child in the regular classroom as far as possible, was the UNISTAPS Project limited to hearing impaired children and now to visually impaired children, 0-4, as well, in the fifth year of funding? A brief review of enabling legislation relating to preschool handicapped children in Minnesota gives the answer.

In 1967, legislation was passed which permitted a local education agency to provide educational services for preschool handicapped children below kindergarten age. However, the appropriation of $120,000 as a line item in the biennial budget for Special Education limited those funds to programs for **preschool hearing impaired children** only.

The 1968 **Educational Guidelines: A Family Oriented Preschool Program for Hearing Impaired Children in Minnesota** defined preschool as "the span of years beginning at birth, or as soon as the diagnosis of hearing loss has been established, until age four when mandatory local school district responsibility begins." (M.S. 120.17, Subdivision 1). These **Guidelines** provided that the tuition of a hearing impaired child in a private nursery school could be paid by a local school district as part of a total special education program, and many children receive these tuition-free services.

In 1971, the state legislature authorized appropriations for prekindergarten handicapped children, **regardless of disability**, on a permissive basis. Through the UNISTAPS Project and with the assistance of a statewide Advisory Committee, **State Guidelines: Educational Programs for Preschool Handicapped Children in Minnesota** are now in final draft form.

Premises: The UNISTAPS Project –

1. The center of learning for the very young child is in his home and his parents are his natural and first teachers. (Moore, Moon, Moore, 1972)

2. It is the right of every hearing impaired child to an individually prescriptive free public education as soon as the diagnosis of hearing loss is established. The local education agency (public school) is a case finder, case manager and coordinator of educationl services for the young child and his parents, in partnership with parents and

the local health care system.

3. The medical label "deaf" (by audiometric measurement and audiogram) is diagnostically and psychologically unsound as a basis for prediction of daily performance and active utilization of residual hearing in language acquisition. (Davis, 1965; McConnell, 1968)

4. Early auditory and oral intervention and binaural amplification in the first two years of life makes clear, by the time a child reaches the primary grades, the educational setting in which he/she can be assimilated (integrated or self-contained program).

5. The primary focus is on the development of competence and confidence in parents, with concern for the affective as well as instructional aspects of their new role as parents of a child with a permanent sensory defect.

Program Operation: The UNISTAPS Project operates on two levels:

1. Within the Minneapolis School District, coordinating a staff inservice training program and participating in staff meetings, as appropriate, which are convened by the Minneapolis Coordinator of the Hearing Impaired; and

2. On a statewide basis. The UNISTAPS Project Director, Minnesota Department of Education, coordinated a training program which provides continuing professional growth experiences for personnel who serve hearing impaired children and their families – professionals and para-professionals, parents and allied resource specialists in health, education and welfare.

The Project uses lectures (i.e., foreign lecturers, A. G. Bell Association for the Deaf Series); workshops; conferences; University seminars; and site visits planned and coordinated by the Project Director with the assistance of ad hoc committees representing the various disciplines who will comprise the audience. The committee members assist in developing the agenda and indicating the training needs and interests of the groups involved. In addition to these committees, the Director meets regularly with the Special Education Regional Consultants responsible for monitoring and developing regional programs for young hearing impaired children throughout Minnesota. The consultants indicate their specific training needs and programs are designed accordingly. Formal evaluation of each training session by the participants provides information which is incorporated into the design and content of subsequent workshops.

In August 1973, Abt Associates selected 17 "exemplary programs" in the areas of early childhood education, career education and manpower development as subjects for indepth program descriptions for national dissemination from a sample of 50 programs provided by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. "Exemplary" in this instance refers to the "interesting and promising features of a program which appeared to be worthy of further study . . . and as examples in the field."

For further more detailed exploration of program operation dimensions of the UNISTAPS project, EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS FOR THE HANDICAPPED, VOLUME III – Early Childhood Education: Case Studies by Abt Associates for the National Institute of Education and the U. S. Office of Education, and Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, will be helpful.

PROJECT BACKGROUND

In 1968, under provisions in the Amendment to Minnesota Statute 1965, Section 120.17, Subdivision 1, the Minneapolis Public Schools began to provide special programs for hearing impaired children under age four. The hearing impaired were selected as the first handicapped children to be afforded education under this provision. The significance of language development in children during the preschool years, ages one to four, was certainly a major factor in designating the hearing impaired child for early educational intervention.

Because of a rubella measles epidemic in 1966-67 the population of hearing impaired children was the largest in the history of the state. Eighty-six families enrolled children in the Minneapolis program in one year. The program for hearing impaired infants and their parents was well received, but it became very evident the first year that the services offered needed to be expanded. Additional support to parents and a variety of program options were needed.

The additional support necessary to expand the program was secured by expanded Part C funding; which provided the opportunity to expand program options; to organize support staff; to plan inservice for nursery school teachers, Minneapolis staff, parents and grandparents; to order materials and supplies; to provide consultant services; to develop curriculum; and to provide evaluation services.

The past four years the UNISTAPS Project has used an expanded preschool model to include those years prior to first grade enrollment.

PHILOSOPHY AND GOALS/OBJECTIVES

UNISTAPS is a demonstration project for infant and preschool hearing impaired children and their families. The laboratory school currently offers comprehensive services to thirty-five children and their families through the Minneapolis Public School system. Program aims include: 1) comprehensive evaluation of each child and individualized program based on needs; 2) development of the child's reliance on listening and on spoken language as a normal means of communication; 3) strengthened parent-child relationships; 4) community awareness of resources for the hearing impaired child; and 5) incorporation of program principles and practices into University teacher training programs through course work and practicum experiences.

The goals for the child defined by UNISTAPS and staff include:

- Medical, psychological, audiological evaluation of each child through agency coordination, and perceptual-motor evaluation on referral.

- Parent-child involvement in the action of learning.

- Individually prescribed education program designed for each child. The amount and type of professional intervention is dependent upon the child's functional residual hearing, intellectual capacity, relationship between family and child, varieties of strengths and resources within the child, his family, and the community.

- Development of cognitive, communicative, social, perceptual-motor and self-help skills.

- Dynamic use of residual hearing.

- Increased maturity, intellectual curiosity, improved self-image.

- Parent-child involvement in the action of learning.

The comprehensive program components for infant and preschool children and their families are (see Figure 2):

- Parent counseling and guidance (individual, group): parent education.

- Nursery school experience with hearing children.

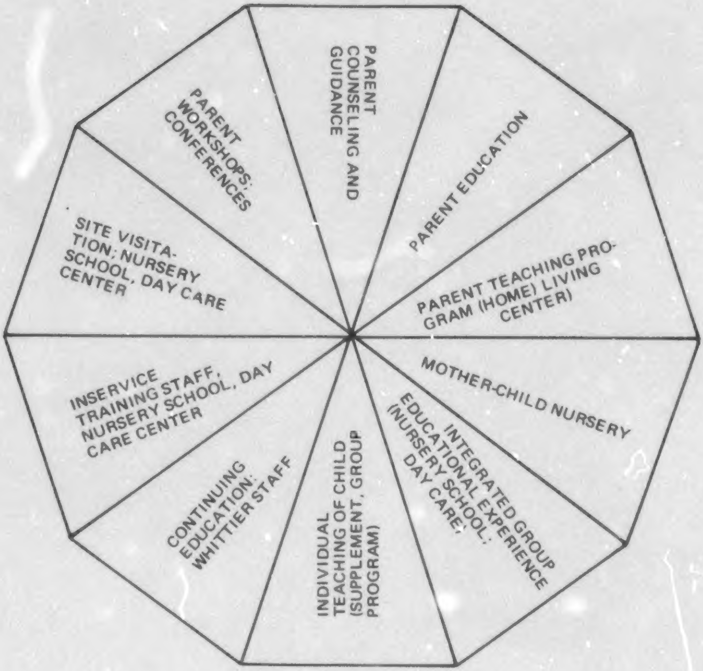

PARENT COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE
PARENT EDUCATION
PARENT TEACHING PROGRAM (HOME) LIVING CENTER)
MOTHER-CHILD NURSERY
INTEGRATED GROUP EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE (NURSERY SCHOOL; DAY CARE)
INDIVIDUAL TEACHING OF CHILD (SUPPLEMENT, GROUP PROGRAM)
CONTINUING EDUCATION: WHITTIER STAFF
INSERVICE TRAINING STAFF, NURSERY SCHOOL, DAY CARE CENTER
SITE VISITATION; NURSERY SCHOOL, DAY CARE CENTER
PARENT WORKSHOPS; CONFERENCES

Figure 2

MAJOR PROGRAM COMPONENTS: FAMILY-ORIENTED WHITTIER INFANT/PRESCHOOL PROGRAM, MINNEAPOLIS, P.S.

- Mother/child nursery.
- Individual tutoring of child (accustic and linguistic simulation).
- Home visitation (demonstration home or family domicile: parent-child interaction).
- Parent workshops and institutes.
- Site visitation of nursery school serving hearing impaired children.
- Inservice training of nursery teachers.

TARGET POPULATION/SELECTION CRITERIA

The Whittier program serves a regional need and approximately 65 percent of the preschool population is suburban. All of the children in the program have hearing losses which are handicapping educationally and/or developmentally. More than half of the children are profoundly deaf (over 90 decible loss) and 80 percent are severely or profoundly impaired.

In 1972-73, of the new population, a larger percentage fell into the mild-moderate loss category. This trend reflects the program's increasing involvement in supporting families with children who have minimum problems so the language delay due to the hearing loss will be remediated before the "normal" school attendance age. The program attempts to reach families as soon as diagnosis of hearing loss has been established.

Prior to enrollment and individual programming for children, a social history, a medical examination, audiological evaluation, otological examination, and individual hearing aids are required.

MAJOR PROGRAM COMPONENTS

The Whittier Parent Program attempts to involve the whole family in the education of the hearing impaired child and is committed to the principles that: 1) parents are the child's first and best teachers; 2) the home is the most appropriate learning environment; and 3) daily activities are the most vital sources of language input for young children.

Parents are the program's first pupils. During the child's first three years, the primary focus of the program is on parent counseling, guidance and education. The majority of parents have no previous experience with deafness and therefore no skills to draw upon when dealing with feelings, expectations, and when working with their child. The program's multidisciplinary staff works initially with the parents' attitudes and feelings about their handicapped child. Ultimately, the program hopes to develop emotionally stable, confident, and competent families who can provide a stimulating learning environment for the young deaf child.

Major program components are evaluated against a set of objectives, several of which are listed in Figure 3.

Weekly Individual Parent Sessions. Each child, along with his parents, has a weekly one-hour session with one of the program's three parent advisors. The sessions take place in one of the two demonstration home settings arranged in an efficiency living room-kitchen combination so parents can learn to use their own home settings as natural environments for language stimulation. Initially, the parent observes as the parent advisor demonstrates a specific acitivity with the child, accompanying the activity with well-inflected language and use of environmental sounds. Gradually, the parent assumes the major teaching role and learns to model language appropriate for the listening age of the child making use of daily living situations to stimulate oral language attempts.

Nursery School Placement. Enrollment in a regular nursery may be recommended by the parent advisors for three-year-old hearing impaired children. The UNISTAPS staff has its own requirements for nursery schools regarding licensing, curriculum, and teacher/pupil ratio, and they have developed criteria that a child must exhibit before nursery school placement is considered. When the child is a full-time hearing aid user, has advanced in use of audition for language acquisition, has developed speech and language skills to a level where peer interaction is possible, part- or full-time placement in nursery schools for children with normal hearing is recommended. The Whittier staff provides inservice training for the nursery school teachers and gives consultant support by visiting the nursery school at least every six weeks.

Mother/Child Nursery. A self-contained mother/child experiential nursery operates three mornings a week for selected children and their mothers. This option is primarily for children who have been identified late who have profound hearing loss and whose rate in developing listening skills and oral language patterns is delayed. This nursery provides a more intensive involvement in a structured learning environment.

Figure 3

WHITTIER TIER PARENT PROGRAM/INFANT PRESCHOOL OBJECTIVES

Evaluation

The UNISTAPS project has developed objectives that give guidelines for program development and for evaluating parent involvement and child growth:

Objective	Instrument	Schedule of Testing
1. An individual prescriptive educational program will be established for each child in the Infant Program.	Social worker's report, parent counselor interview, audiological assessment, and Vineland Scale.	Within two weeks of enrollment.
2. Each child integrated into a hearing nursery will be evaluated for social adjustment within four weeks and at end of school year.	Evaluation of Integrated Nursery School. Check list of Observer.	Fall-Spring 1972-73 1973-74
3. Each child will be video-taped in his hearing nursery and rated within three months of admittance to that program.	Evaluation of Integrated Nursery School. Evaluation of Video Tape.	Fall 1972-73 1973-74
4. Psychological assessment of each child will be obtained by the end of school year.	Merrill-Palmer.	By April-May 1973 1974
5. Each child referred by teacher will be evaluated for perceptual motor development by the occupational therapist.	Gesell and/or Frostig.	Upon teacher referral – ongoing.
6. Each child will be evaluated for appropriateness of binaural amplification.	UNISTAPS – Gladwin Test Battery.	May-June 1972 May-June 1973
7. Each child will be reevaluated by an audiologist within one year of entrance.	Audiological Evaluation.	Ongoing – within 12 months of enrollment date.

Figure 3

WHITTIER TIER PARENT PROGRAM/INFANT PRESCHOOL OBJECTIVES (Cont.)

Objective	Instrument	Schedule of Testing
8. Teaching staff and appropriate resource personnel will hold case conferences monthly to plan, develop, and evaluate the educational services for children enrolled in the Infant and Preprimary Programs.	Social Work Conference Records.	Collect records at end of year.
9. The age of identification of hearing loss will decrease over time.	Audiological reports for 1968-69 through 1972-73.	Tabulate records at close of 1972-73.
10. The age of enrollment in the program will drecrease over time.	Enrollment records for 1968-69 through 1972-73.	Tabulate records at close of 1972-73.
11. The interval between identification and enrollment will decrease.	Audiological records and enrollment records.	Tabulate records at close of 1972-73.
12. Parents will pass 85% of test items correctly after attendance at group meetings.	Parent Information Questionnaire.	Spring
13. Parents will participate in 90% of individual counseling sessions and will work one hour per week on experiental activities.	Attendance records, Developmental Logs.	End of school year.
14. Mothers of children in Whittier nurseries will attend 90% of weekly meetings.	Attendance records.	End of school year.
15. Each parent will show improvement from pre- to post-test on parent-child interaction in experiential activity.	Video-Tape rating scale parent form.	Fall-Spring 1972 1973
16. Parents of each child placed in a hearing nursery will observe the child at the beginning and end of the school year.	Structured Observation of a child in school – for parents form.	Fall-Spring 1974
17. 75% of parents of Whittier children will keep diaries describing their children's speech, language, motoric, cognitive, and social behavior.	Parent diaries.	Ongoing
18. Mothers of children in the parent-child nursery will participate in directed teaching in 80% of classes.	Teacher records.	End of school year.

This nursery program provides a specific sequence of auditory experiences involving the parent and child. The parent is taught how to make use of everyday experiences and environmental sounds for application in daily family-child interaction at home. The parent and teacher use sentence cards, experience charts, and story sequencing to stimulate auditory attention, discrimination and recall. The emphasis is to help the mothers become proficient at modeling and expanding their children's attempts at verbal self-expression. There is opportunity in the nursery to stress ongoing interaction between parent and child, child and child, and parent and parent.

The Mother/Child Nursery is a transitional program between the individual parent counseling of the Whittier program and the full-day school-based nursery program provided for four-year-old hearing impaired children at Lyndale or Hamilton Elementary Schools.

Pre-Kindergarten Nursery. Not all four-year-old children are placed in the self-contained special classes for hearing impaired, as commented initially there are new options available: some young children at age four, who exhibit language behaviors which suggest they will be candidates for placement in regular kindergarten at age five, are continued in more of a "mainstream" program.

For this select group, continued regular nursery school placement is recommended. In addition, a two day a week intensive language nursery is conducted by one of the parent advisors. Individual language and speech is also provided. The mother and child continue their weekly individual sessions. The children in this group will either go back to their home school or will be programmed at Lyndale Elementary School for integration into regular kindergarten half-day and half-day in a self-contained program of speech, and language auditory training reinforcement for maintenance and better participation in the regular kindergarten setting. Parent counseling continues on a needs basis when the child is placed in the Lyndale Elementary School setting.

Full-Day Nursery – Self-Contained. Because of the importance of normal peers as models for social and language development, the full-day program for four-year-olds was developed. An intensive morning of individual auditory training, speech and language as well as group language periods is counterbalanced with an afternoon of integrated regular nursery activities. Children from the neighborhood are brought into the hearing impaired nursery for an integrated afternoon. The spontaneous language activities of the afternoon reinforce the formal language teaching of the morning. The social interaction with normal peers is not only encouraged but, in fact, planned through supervised free play games, art activities, parties and physical education.

Mothers' Meetings and Other Family Meetings. The mothers are encouraged to attend a two-hour meeting each week. These meetings are particularly important to the "new" mothers but all mothers are invited, and since topics change from year to year attendance varies from week to week. These meetings give mothers a chance to meet informally and to participate in discussion with staff and outside consultants.

To balance the mothers' inservice, parent evening meetings and Saturday family meetings are planned. Individual sessions for the father and child are also conducted by the Whittier staff. The parents determine topics for the meetings and evaluate the speakers and the meetings.

Changes Over Time. In 1968-1969, 79 children, 0-4, were enrolled in the Whittier Infant/Preschool Program for the hearing impaired in Minneapolis. Of this number, 67 were identified whose deafness was the primary handicapping condition. As of September 1972, 46 percent (32) of this population were receiving their education in their neighborhood school in a regular classroom. Supplementary instruction and speech services are provided and underwritten by the local district and state aids.

Sociometric studies (Kennedy, Bruininks, 1973, **Exceptional Children,** in press) examined the peer status and the self-perceived status of fifteen first and second grade hearing impaired children enrolled in regular classes in the first year of a longitudinal study of UNISTAPS laboratory program "graduates." Results indicated that the hearing impaired children received a higher degree of social acceptance from normal hearing peers than reported in previous studies. They were also as perceptive of their own social status as normal hearing children.

In the second year of exploratory study, McCauley (1974) compared interactive verbal and non-verbal social behaviors of 14 hearing impaired and 14 non-handicapped children (same sexed classmates) in regular education classes. The former group of children were "graduates" of the UNISTAPS laboratory program for hearing impaired preschool children, 0-4, and their parents located at Whittier public school in Minneapolis.

There were no statistically significant differences between the two groups with regard to positive and negative interactions or verbal and non-verbal. However, interesting trends are noted: hearing impaired children interacted positively with teachers to a significantly greater degree than did non-handicapped children; non-handicapped classmates interacted with a significantly greater number of peers than did hearing impaired youngsters.

In a four-year period, the following changes were noted:

Mean Age of Diagnosis of Hearing Loss	**1968-69**	**1971-72**
(Minneapolis Regional Program)	26.34 mos.	20.74 mos.
Mean Age of Enrollment	**1968-69**	**1971-72**
Profound Loss (91db plus)	38.07 mos	21.18 mos.
Severe loss (70-90 db)	39.80 mos.	21.00 mos.
ALL children, 0-6, regardless of hearing loss	40.21 mos.	34.45 mos.

SUMMARY OF PROGRAM PREMISES

Parents as the Child's First and Best Teacher. The parents are the first learners in this program and through guidance and education they become exceptional resources for the child's education.

Early Education Intervention helps families as well as the hearing impaired child. The Whittier program involves parents at a very critical time in their lives soon after the diagnosis of their child's hearing loss. The staff works initially with the parents to deal with the attitudes and feelings toward their child, and to help them develop realistic acceptance and understanding of the nature of the child's hearing loss. The staff can provide special training for the child only after the parents are able to support the program since it is through the parents the education of the very young child is effective.

Normal Expectations. The Whittier staff helps parents view their child in the terms of normal developmental expectations. It is important that parents look at the abilities as well as the limitations of their child. The curriculum developed for the preschool, nursery kindergarten, and readiness classes is based on normal development skills and works toward the normal progression of language acquisition.

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EMERSON SCHOOL AND SHELTERING ARMS PROGRAM FOR SEVERELY RETARDED

Harriet E. Blodgett and S. Sajjad Haider

Special education programs for the educable mentally retarded in the Minneapolis Public Schools date back to about 1917. Programs in public schools for the trainable retarded are much more recent. Development of parent associations for the retarded, which occurred locally in the late 1940's, led to the beginning of a pilot trainable class in one elementary school in the early 1950's. Another impetus to the development of programs for trainable children resulted from Sheltering Arms. Sheltering Arms is a private, non-profit charitable organization whose charter mandates services to children. It was first an orphanage, from 1882 to about 1941; then it served the community as a hospital until 1955. Then, as its Board of Directors sought a new area of usefulness, community recommendations were that Sheltering Arms, in partnership with the Minneapolis Public Schools, develop a research-oriented school program for retarded children, with emphasis on educational needs of the trainable retarded, on developing effective approaches to parent education and counseling, and research in problems of mental retardation.

Sheltering Arms and the Minneapolis Public Schools accepted this recommendation and opened a school program in 1955 with about thirty-five children in three classes, two classes for trainable children and one for children deemed educable. Under the partnership arrangement, the schools provided the teachers, transportation, and basic budget for supplies and equipment; Sheltering Arms provided buildings, grounds, maintenance, and all the staff except the teachers. Since then the program has expanded to its present six classroom groups, three for trainable children and three for educable children, in the age range of five to fourteen.

Long before the mandatory legislation for education of trainable children was passed in 1972, Minneapolis had accepted a mandate of its own and had developed additional classes at the trainable level. "Transitional" and "lower track" classes were being established in several different schools by 1962. The development of the Cooperative School Rehabilitation Center, first supported as a demonstration project by a Vocational Rehabilitation grant and later taken over by a network of cooperating metropolitan school districts, gave further impetus to the development of programs for trainable children. By 1966, junior high school age trainable classes were in operation. By 1971, there were about ten elementary and junior high school age classes serving trainable and "transitional" ability levels. In 1971, the scattered trainable classes in Minneapolis were centralized at Emerson school and served a total of about ninety children. With the advent of the mandatory legislation in 1972, the size of the trainable program at Emerson School doubled; about one hundred and eighty children were served there during the 1972-73 school year. The age range was from five to sixteen; at age sixteen, youngsters were transferred on a tuition basis to the Cooperative School Rehabilitation Center or to other suitable training or care facilities.

With the passage of the mandatory education law for trainable children, Minneapolis needed to expand its school facilities, but also had a good basis of experience on which to do so. Emerson School underwent extensive remodeling and refurbishing, and rapidly developed plans for differentiated staffing patterns, transportation, and screening procedures. Special education personnel screened all Minneapolis children being served in private schools, daytime activity centers, or not at all, and developed plans to meet the needs of a wide-ranging group of youngsters. In its first year of the expanded program, two features should especially be mentioned:

1. The development of the "special needs" group – a group of young, severely retarded youngsters whose potential to profit from school was doubtful but who could not be evaluated without further trial and observation, and

2. The extension and further development of the program for the junior high school age group.

Essentially, the goal of any school program for mentally retarded children is to make possible for each child the attainment of his fullest growth potential in all areas of development and learning: social, emotional, academic, vocational, behavioral. Definition of a philosophy is more complex, but includes these aspects:

1. Retarded children have an equal right, as do all children, to provisions by society of opportunities to learn, develop, and fit into a role in the total society insofar as they are capable of doing so. Society has an obligation to provide such opportunities, with such adaptations as may be required by the children themselves.

2. Parents of retarded children, like parents of any children, have a right to expect that society, including education as a social provision, will make the necessary adaptations to the "standard" educational system to meet the needs of their children.

3. Society has a right, as a total group of people, to set some limits to what it can provide. Theoretically, these limits should be broader and more generous during the developmental years, to permit fullest exploration of the capacities of the children to become contributing members of the larger society.

4. Division of responsibility is complex, and shifts from time to time, as social values shift and concepts of individual responsibility shift. However, in the past quarter century, one shift that has occurred is clear: It is not enough to provide only basic care to the retarded population; this assumption denies many retarded individuals the opportunity to demonstrate through their performance some individual differences in learning and adaptive capacities, some differences in developmental rate and long-range potential, some differences in motivation, some differences in performance capacities.

5. Because mental retardation has long carried a special social stigma, parents and families of retarded children have carried a special burden of acceptance and comprehension – not so much of the problem of retardation as of the problem of its social consequences, not only to the retarded individual, but to his entire family. Changes in social attitude, in large part due to the development and activities of parent associations, have modified these attitudes greatly, but have not totally erased them.

Education has a responsibility not only to serve the retarded themselves, but also to the continuing education and counseling of parents and families of the retarded. Parents of a retarded child may know him very well, but this does not mean that they comprehend the whole area of mental retardation. The more information and understanding parents can gain about the entire field of mental retardation, the more adequately they can comprehend where their own child fits in this field, and the more sensibly they can fulfill their parent role. Parent education therefore becomes a parallel function of school programs for the retarded. Mental retardation is no respector of persons; it occurs at all levels of society, education, social roles, occupational levels. Recognition, acceptance, and coping-with, however, present different kinds of problems at different levels. School programs for the retarded need to take into account family responsibility for some educational decision-making, and as a forerunner of this, parent need for information and interpretation.

The target population includes all trainable retarded who are able to participate in a public school program. While this definition might exclude some children for reasons of health, extreme physical handicap, or multi-sensory defect, the Minneapolis Schools are striving to achieve a no-demisions goal.

There are various ways to describe the development of suitable curriculum for trainable children. One way is to set forth the goals, the hoped-for outcomes. Another way is to set forth the developmental areas to be given attention. Or the two might be combined. If we look at hoped-for outcomes, we can set up areas such as the following and outline activities to contribute to them:

1. Mental health – including building self-confidence, success experiences, security feelings, enjoyment of living, positive self-concepts, comfortable and acceptable ways of managing frustration.

2. Social skills – acceptance of rules, boundaries, authority; communication skills; respect for feelings, rights, and property of others; habits of cooperation, fair play, trustworthiness, health and safety habits.

3. Motor development – physical skills, coordination, eye-hand skills.

4. Individual interests – development of leisure time activities and areas of self-expression in artistic, verbal, motor ways.

5. Functional skills for daily living – practical judgment, health habits, awareness of environment, basic self-help and independence skills, social participation, recreational interests.

6. Intellectual and academic skills – sight vocabulary for safety and practicality, number concepts, time concepts, money handling skills.

These have been the areas which have provided the framework for the trainable curriculum at Sheltering Arms. Emerson School proceeded a little differently in structuring its program. Having experimented for a year with the American Association on Mental Deficiency Adaptive Behavior Checklist, the staff at Emerson used this checklist to formulate, in detail, a graded, step-by-step set of specific tasks within nine categories. All children, during a two-month trial period, are observed and rated by staff members who keep specific records on the child's level of functioning in these areas. At the end of the two month period, these staff members combine their records and judgments to rate each child and formulate plans for his developmental program. The areas are as follows:

1. Psychomotor (including, for example, fitness, body awareness, fundamental movements, balance, coordination, use of small objects).

2. Self-care skills.

3. Self-direction appropriate to level of development.

4. Socialization (recognition of familiar people, level of play participation).

5. Language (reading, following instructions, comprehensions of concepts).

6. Functional number concepts (counting by rote, object counting, concepts of time and money).

7. Home living (care of clothing, grooming, room care, food preparation).

8. General independent functioning (errand responsibility, independent travel, use of telephone, and situational competence).

9. Occupational skills (work fitness, job performance).

To these nine was added one additional category of social behavior, including self-restraint, obedience, truthfulness, temper control.

An essential thing to consider is that a child's development does not progress first in one area, then in another. All areas progress together, but not necessarily at the same rate. While a child is becoming more socialized, he is also progressing in self-help skills, learning to listen and pay attention, becoming more cooperative, learning to communicate better, building interests. Any attempt to put all of these things into a ladder approach is artificial and unreal; one thing does not, in real life, follow another; several things progress simultaneously.

The task of special education is to provide a learning climate which permits each child to move forward toward greater competence in all areas. "Curriculum" is a word to describe what teachers do to create a total environment in which children adapt better, learn better, function better. Competence is the important goal; life experiences provide the path to it.

The school program for trainable children is best described as a broad spectrum of life experiences guided by skillful teachers who are able to know and differentiate the uneven ability patterns and individual differences of the children they serve. Certainly the school program should provide attention to motor, self-help, language, concrete information, social emotional needs and skills. How these components are put together for a specific group of children will depend on their age, maturity level, and special problems.

Individual differences, important in all of education, are critically important for the mentally retarded because of their much lower base-line of ability. Children of normal ability can use one area of skill to compensate, to some extent, for a lesser area of skill. Retarded children, whose areas of skill are all deficient, can do very little in the way of compensation. Classroom programs must, in response to this developmental fact, provide more latitude, adapt to more individual differences, provide more individualized goals. Components of the program can indeed be generalized to include specific programs in all of the developmental areas, but how they are implemented must depend on the composition of the classroom group.

In the Emerson School program one hundred and eighty children are served, with an annual budget of $512,700, entirely from public support, which includes state aids providing 60 percent reimbursement of salaries (up to $5,600 per year) of essential professional personnel, plus transportation and other aids. The budget breakdown is:

		Percent of Total
1. Salaries	$429,000	83.7
2. Maintenance	10,000	1.9
3. Transportation	65,000	12.7
4. Instructional Materials	6,700	1.3
5. Staff Development	2,000	0.4
	$512,700	

This works out to a per capita cost of $2,750.

In the Sheltering Arms' program, public school funding covers teachers' salaries, basic budget for supplies and equipment, and transportation. Transportation is combined with Dowling School for the physically handicapped and does not appear as a separate budget figure. The public school funding is assisted by the same state aids as is the Emerson School program. The financial breakdown is:

		Percent of Total
1. Salaries	$ 86,717*	
2. Equipment, Supplies	2,618	
Total Public School Funding	$ 89,335	37.6
Sheltering Arms' Funding	$148,260	62.4
Total Funding	$237,595	

*Six full-time; three part-time teachers

The Sheltering Arms' funding includes salaries of all staff except the teachers, plus accessory costs of $48,650 for insurance, utilities, payroll taxes, depreciation, fuel, and maintenance costs not itemized on the Emerson School budget. This works out to a per capita cost of about $3,600. This is probably not much different from Emerson's costs if the building costs had been worked out on the same auditing basis. The Sheltering Arms' program receives slightly over one-third of its support from public school funds and slightly less than two-thirds of its support from Sheltering Arms.

Both schools derive some benefit from parent group fund-raising projects, perhaps in the vicinity of $500 per year. Sheltering Arms also receives some individual gifts and bequests from individuals or groups concerned with mental retardation.

The Sheltering Arms' physical plant is a large building built about 1910 to serve as a children's home. This houses the classrooms, offices, dining areas, play space, diagnostic space, and kitchen facilities. This facility was extended in 1968 by the addition of an adjoining building which houses a gymnasium and an auditorium.

Sheltering Arms is fortunate in having about twelve acres of land, which permits space for outdoor activities, recreation, playground areas, exploration, and many outdoor concrete learning opportunities.

The staff totals twenty-one full-time and seven part-time people: sic teachers, five classroom aides, five administrative and professional staff (program director, business coordinator, social worker, school psychologist, and program secretary), plus five building staff (cook, housekeeper, assistant cook, dining room assistant and full-time maintenance man), plus five part-time people, (2/5 of a physical education teacher, 2/5 of a speech clinician, one-half of a school clerk, and a part-time janitorial assistant). In addition, there are numerous volunteers, plus students in training in undergraduate and graduate programs in education and psychology.

Emerson School is a traditional school building, a three-floor structure with a gymnasium which doubles as a lunchroom and auditorium on occasion. It is still in the process of developing specialized facilities for the trainable retarded population, improvements of the playground, outdoor greenery and decorations, and special facilities for the junior high school age group for home living, such as a home economics unit which includes a beautifully equipped kitchen, grooming area, dining room, living room, bedroom, and laundry. Also available is a workshop area with special equipment, differentiated teaching areas for art and music, and a well-functioning scheme for making use of many community facilities for in-field extensions of education.

The Sheltering Arms' student population of sixty-six is divided into six classroom groups: three for educable children, three for trainable children. All children are ambulatory. Multiple handicaps are fairly frequent; the educable children served include at least half who would be considered multiply handicapped and who probably would not be able to fit into the typical educable retarded class.

The Emerson School population covers a wider age range and a wide range of handicaps. The elementary program includes 101 children; the junior high school age group includes 79, for a total enrollment of 180. There are more boys than girls – the ratio is about 3/5 to 2/5; this is true of the Sheltering Arms' population also. The junior high school program includes five classrooms which function in a modified departmentalized fashion, and one self-contained classroom to serve youngsters with special needs. At the elementary level, there are four subdivisions as follows:

1. The child development laboratory, serving severely retarded and multiply handicapped children ages five to twelve; a total of sixteen children.

2. Three primary level classes, ages five to eight, divided into three ability groupings: special needs, middle functioning and higher functioning.

3. Three intermediate classes, ages nine and ten, also divided into three ability groupings.

4. Two upper level classes, ages ten to twelve, serving middle and higher functioning levels.

The Emerson School junior high school program is designed to provide trainable children in the age range of about thirteen to sixteen with:

1. Extension of basic education – number concepts, basic reading vocabulary for those who can use it;

2. Continued training in social skills and practical independent living skills; and

3. Prevocational and work habit training.

It is not expected that these youngsters, at age sixteen, will be able to move into the world of work; they will need more prolonged training and experience to be able to do this, but it is expected that on-going concrete learning experiences, social experiences, and responsibility-taking can contribute to their becoming productive members of society at whatever level their ability will permit. Minneapolis is fortunate in having available the Cooperative School Rehabilitation Center, which serves many cooperating school districts as a work-oriented program for older trainable adolescents. Many of the Emerson group move on to attendance at the Cooperative School Rehabilitation Center at about age sixteen; this group also includes the Sheltering Arms' graduates who left Sheltering Arms at around age fourteen and spent the next two to three years at the Emerson School junior high school age program.

The Emerson School staffing pattern involves more people and more differentiated staffing than Sheltering Arms with its smaller population. The Emerson staff totals about sixty-five people: five administrative and professional staff including one principal, one assistant program coordinator, one school nurse and two social workers; fifteen classroom teachers, plus one industrial arts teacher, one physical education teacher, one home living teacher, a half-time teacher of arts and crafts, and two language and speech correction teachers. There are also thirteen child development technicians, products of a two-year junior college training program, and eighteen teacher aides. There are three janitors, two clerk-secretaries, one health clerk, plus part-time specialty teachers for hearing impaired and vision impaired children.

To appreciate the need for this sizable and differentiated staff, we need to look briefly at the composition of the student body.

Thirty-four percent of the children have hearing impairments; there are seven children who are profoundly deaf. Ten percent are not toilet trained; 12 percent are non-verbal. There are four children who are nearly blind. Fifty-two percent are considered multiply handicapped.

Special materials and equipment used in both programs include many of the conventional kinds of educational equipment on the market today, i.e., Edmark reading systems, Distar and Peabody language training equipment, Language Masters, tape recorders, television sets, record players, opaque projectors, overhead projectors, slide projectors, movie projectors, special gymnasium equipment, listening tables, the same kinds of equipment found in any well served school. However, the significance of special equipment is not in its existence, but in the skill of the teachers who make use of it, fitting it to the daily needs of the school population.

Workbooks and textbooks may also be useful with the trainable retarded, but usually only if they are modified by teachers into handmade adaptations to meet the learning levels of the child. The daily morning meeting of a classroom group may have more learning significance than a daily session with word recognition skills would have; consequences of the learning environment and sets of experiences depend more on the teacher's comprehension of the needs of her group than on the availability of "canned" teaching materials. One of the shortcomings of commercially prepared and available teaching materials is that the traits of the trainable retarded are so highly individualized and personally significant. For example, the goal for a trainable retarded boy, age twelve, may be to help him gain enough confidence to look another person in the eye and say what he has to say. Another child of the same age might have set for him as a major goal the need to relate to other people in a cooperative and friendly rather than a resistive and hostile fashion. Another child might have as a dominant social need the need to fit in better, to be less determined to have the center of the stage. We are concerned, most critically, with trainable children, with the need to maximize their social acceptability for the sake of their being able to be part of society and their ability to maximize their independence and productivity.

The Emerson School program is recent, large in size, and still solving some of its growth and development problems. The effort has strengths of differentiated staffing, in extension of learning experiences to the junior high school age for concrete and practical skill acquisition, in the effort to analyze skills areas into separate tasks which can then be structured into a teaching technique, in its development of differentiated teaching areas, its special facilities for home living units, and its carpeted classrooms.

Sheltering Arms has been in existence for eighteen years, and its enrollment has nearly doubled in that time. Strengths include: special attention to individual differences in children and in families; development of a strong parent education program and effective approaches to work with individual parents; and using a total school staff approach to the study of individual children. Also, a number of approaches to program evaluation have been utilized:

1. Reports written by parents about their children, once a month for two years and then three times a year, to bring together the parent's view of the child with the school's view, to enhance school understanding of family attitudes, expectations, and life patterns, and to sharpen parent observations and insight. These reports serve as a parent education instrument, as a way for teachers to come to know more quickly significant aspects of the child's home living, and as a data collecting device to furnish first-hand information about home problems.

2. Teacher evaluation of new children. A behavior checklist is to be completed by the teacher when a child has been in their room for two to three weeks. The purpose is to objectify the teacher's thinking about the child and his levels of competence and thus help formulate goals. The usefulness of the teacher's descriptive checklist is enhanced by:

   a. Parent description and evaluation of children entering the program. This helps a teacher know the child more quickly, at least as he appears to his parents, and also helps parents think about their child's behavior more objectively and specifically.

   b. A variety of conference techniques: Teacher-parent conferences, social worker-parent conferences; program director-parent conferences, occasional full staff and parent conferences; conference reports completed by staff following conferences with parents.

   c. Behavior ratings of individual children completed annually by teachers and other staff for behavior traits primarily in social areas. These ratings, representing pooled judgments, then permit comparison of differing age groups and ability groups, as well as comparison of individual children with themselves at earlier ages.

d. Follow-up studies of former students, which contribute to better understanding of on-going factors which influence life adjustment.

e. The monthly parent education group program has drawn from two-thirds to three-fourths of the families involved. This program focuses during any one year on providing information about various aspects of mental retardation – causation, mental growth processes, intellectual measurement, social and emotional growth, behavior management techniques, parent-child relationships, curriculum modifications, setting realistic expectations for retarded children, parent characteristics and emotional needs, and solving family problems.

Both programs are continuing to work on curriculum development, individualized programs for children, selection criteria, observational systems, better utilization of staff, processes of decision making with regard to planning for children, and methods of working more effectively with other community agencies to provide for the better meeting of children's needs. Children as people are the focus of our programs; learning how to live is the goal.

DAY CARE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR THE SEVERELY MULTIPLE IMPAIRED BEEKMAN CENTER – LANSING, MICHIGAN

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Background and History

Children with multiple impairment have a long history of receiving educational services in the greater Lansing area. Usually these children have been served in an existing basic special education classroom such as those for physically impaired and trainable mentally impaired children. However, these programs usually did not serve severely multiply impaired children when cognitive functioning was assumed to be below the level of a "trainable" mentally impaired child. The program for severely multiple impaired children is new to the public schools in Michigan.

It was not until after 1970 that Michigan schools began looking in earnest at public school programs for multiple impaired children. The State Board of Education indicated that first priority for utilization of Title VI Funds of P.L. 91-230 during the school year 1970 thru 1973 should be for programming for multiple handicapped children.

Even though Title VI funds were to initiate programs for the multiple handicapped, the severity of the handicap accepted in the program varied greatly from one Title VI project to another, depending upon the sophistication and acceptance of multiple impaired children into the basic special education programs in the given geographic area. Since the Lansing area was serving multiply impaired children in its basic special education programs from about age 3 thru age 21, the primary emphasis of the Title VI program from September 1970 thru June 1972 was:

1. Identification of young multiple handicapped children.

2. Initiation of a home training program for young children ages 0 to 3 who appeared to be functioning at a cognitive level of trainable or less.

3. Extension of a home training program for children who appeared to be too impaired to be in any school program.

Mandatory Special Education

Prior to school year 1973-74, special education programs were conducted under permissive legislation. School districts had considerable latitude as to what handicapped children they would serve. Mandatory special education became effective this year in Michigan. Public Act 198 of 1971, the Mandatory Special Education Act, is considered a "Bill of Rights for Handicapped Children." This act is designed to assure that every handicapped person in Michigan not only has the right to an appropriate, comprehensive and quality education, but also must have the opportunity to take advantage of that right. The act affords the opportunity for an appropriate education for all handicapped persons age 0-25.

Change of Direction in Programming

The provisions of the Mandatory Special Education Act, while mandatory for 1973-74, were permissive for 1972-73 school year. Among other provisions, the mandate allowed schools to serve children who were functioning below a trainable level. Prior to this time, these children were the prime responsibility of the State Mental Health Department through its various hospitals and institutions and of Community Mental Health if such children were residing in the community. Consequently, the Lansing area schools moved a year before Mandatory Special Education to take over community education programs for severely retarded persons. A contract was established between the State Department of Education, the three Intermediate School Districts of Clinton, Eaton and Ingham counties and the Lansing School District to establish a day care training program.

It was agreed by the parties concerned that the program would include severely multiple impaired children as well as profoundly mentally impaired. A parent advisory committee, composed of parents with severely multiple impaired children, was involved in the initiation of this program. No longer were severely multiple impaired to be served on a home training program only. For the very young the home training program continues; however, beginning at about age three or four there is a full day program for 230 days per year in the "day care training program."

Statement of Philosophy

Not many years ago in Michigan, which is still true in some parts of the United States, educators were arguing whether or not trainable mentally retarded children were really a legitimate function of the schools. Not until school year 1972-73 could Michigan schools serve severely retarded children who functioned below a trainable level. Many legislators and educators have argued that schools are for the "educable," for those that can make a contribution to society. If children can't learn to read and write and do arithmetic, the schools should not be serving them. The school's business is to "educate." "The schools should spend their money and efforts on those that benefit more."

Historically, even special education has been caught in this philosophy. We have spent most of our resources on the mildly handicapped, "who benefit more from our efforts," and neglected those who could not profit from our goodies. We migrated toward the easy problems and were guilty of the same wrongs we were accusing general education.

In special education, too often we have denied severely handicapped children on some pretty flimsy excuse such as:

1. It's someone else's responsibility. "The kid is too disturbed for schools and therefore belongs to mental health." We have become experts in professional "buck passing."

2. Children who *do not* fit specific labels or categories, or if programs are not available in the specified area in which the child has a label, can be denied a service.

3. Some children are denied service because they do not meet certain or specific behavior conditions. A common one is **toilet training**. Somehow it was felt that changing diapers did not fit into a teacher's role.

4. Some children have been denied a service because they lived too far away from the service center. Schools can't spend that much money just to bring a kid who "won't ever contribute anything anyhow," to school.

The twelve constituent school districts of the Ingham Intermediate School District have agreed that each handicapped person

(0-25) in the Ingham Intermediate School District shall have equal access to a special education program or service designed to meet his or her needs. There is also acceptance that the severely handicapped and/or severely multiple impaired person shall have an equal opportunity to a free quality education program.

Labels are no longer used to deny an educational service. To be human, to be a person, an identity with a personal name is reason enough for a quality education program. Every person can experience something. Every person has a capacity to learn something Every person has a right to see, to feel, to experience the beautiful things around him. Every person has a right to be a part of a moving, living, growing, dynamic environment.

Life is now. The moment is important. We cannot afford to wait until he is "ready." We cannot delay his education until he is "mature enough."

"He is too severe." "Keep him home." "Put him in an institution." For What? It is a crime not to allow a child to develop or to purposely place a child in an environment which does not enhance his development.

Summary of Target Population

Rule 340.1714 of the Michigan School Code defines "Severely multiple impaired" as a person identified by an educational planning and placement committee, based upon previous medical records, any educational history, evaluation by a neurologist, orthopedic surgeon, opthalmologist, audiologist, or equivalent, and other pertinent information, as having *all* the following behavioral characteristics:

1. Severe multiplicity of handicaps in the physical and cognitive domains.

2. Inability or expected inability to function within other special education programs which deal with a single handicap.

3. Development at less than the expected rate of his age group in the cognitive, affective or psychomotor domains.

The program for the severely multiply impaired operated at Beekman Center in Lansing, Michigan, is for 25 persons who have severe impairment in multiple areas. They are not just students who happen to have more than one identifiable impairment. Most such children are served in some other basic special education program.

Most of the persons in this program have no testable I.Q., are non-ambulatory, are without language, are not toilet trained and have severe physical and cognitive impairments. At least these are the conditions when most enter the program. They are children that heretofore have been foreign to the schools and until recently either spent a lifetime in a crib at home or in an institution. These are children that modern medical technology has given longer life. Many would have been aborted or died at a very early age without such proper medical treatment. They are truly 25 severely multiple impaired persons.

Geographic Area Served

Persons are accepted into the program from anywhere in the tri-intermediate school districts of Clinton, Eaton and Ingham counties. This represents a total school population of approximately 100,000 students from 25 constituent school districts. Beekman Center in the Lansing School District is located near the heart of the tri-county population and geographic area.

Funding Arrangements

The program for severely multiple impaired, for funding purposes, is considered a part of the Day Care Training Program for severely mentally impaired children. The Ingham Intermediate School District has a contract with the State Department of Education to obtain State funding for the program. In turn the three intermediate school districts have a contract with the Lansing School District to operate the program. The three intermediate districts guarantee full funding to the Lansing School District as per the program and budget mutually agreed upon. It is anticipated that the State will reimburse between 75% and 90% of the total cost of this program. The remaining funding is provided on a per-student ratio basis by the three intermediate districts. The source of intermediate district funds is a special education tax levied in each of the three intermediate districts. This tax is used for support of operations and capital outlay for any special education program or service within the intermediate districts.

Goals

The broad goal of our program is, of course, to provide an adequate educational opportunity for every child, based on his or her specific individual needs regardless of the severity or multiplicity of handicaps. Our more specific goals are reflected by the various components of the overall program which are as follows:

1. **Physical Therapy**: In this area, our objectives range from "maintenance" where contractures are extremely severe, to locomotion and possibly even ambulation for a very few.

2. **Occupational Therapy**: Working hand in hand with our physical therapist, our occupational therapist is primarily involved with concerns related to positioning and seating, as well as doing developmental testing and "tinkering" with every adaptive device conceivable with a view to developing our youngsters to the maximum in all areas related to self-care skills.

3. **Language Development**: We work in this area to develop language from the most basic receptive level through the acquisition of some propositional speech, hoping to at least equip as many students as possible with some means of expressing their needs, be it verbally or non-verbally.

4. **Basic Educational Component**: Tying all of the above components together is an educational thrust built on specific behavioral objectives.

The following are the areas in which we specify objectives based on the most detailed breakdown of tasks possible:

1. **Toileting**: We are presently attempting to at least "toilet-time" every youngster in the program.

2. **Feeding**: With self-feeding as an ultimate goal, we are working on the development of both techniques and equipment which will make this possible.

3. **Dressing**: We are primarily working on techniques that we can share with parents to make this process somewhat easier with some help from the child.

4. **Cognitive Stimulation**: Again, the entire environment is engineered to provide each with as many stimulating experiences as possible.

5. **Language Development**: Goals in this area permeate the program, with one of the biggest problems being the staff's tendency to become less and less verbal since almost all communication for the children is done on a non-verbal level.

6. **Socialization**: This is tied closely with our objectives in the areas of cognitive stimulation and is accomplished primarily by

exposing each child to as many people, experiences, and situations as possible.

7. **Home Training**: It is our position that parents need training and not just censure. Therefore, we work closely with them to insure continuity for the child at home as well as at school. Our rules for working with parents are as follows:

a. Never ask a parent to do something we can't do.

b. Never ask a parent to do something we haven't *demonstrated* for them.

c. Never ask a parent to do something we haven't put in writing for them.

d. Always be available for follow-up and to answer questions that may arise.

e. Remember that there are likely other children as well as the normal stresses and strains in each family. Parents are human too.

To avoid having a child simply move "from therapy unto therapy," continuity is provided by having all the above elements take place in each child's regular daily classroom. Thus all staff knows exactly what the objectives are for each child, and every contact the child has results in the reinforcement of as many program objectives as possible. The total picture is balanced out by a regular swimming and field trip program (gas willing), and an overall environment designed specifically to stimulate *every* sensory mode.

Program Resources

1. **Personnel**: At the present time, for a group of 25 severely multiple handicapped children we have the following full-time staff:

1 certified teacher ("Training Instructor")
1 Physical Therapist
1 Occupational Therapist
1 Language Therapist (shared with Day Care Training)
1 Registered Nurse (shared with Day Care Training)
1 Psychologist (shared with Day Care Training)
5 Paraprofessional Instructors ("Training Aides")
3 Aides ("Program Assistants")

2. **Physical Plant**: We are located in the Marvin E. Beekman Center

in the Lansing School District. This center, designed primarily for the County Trainable Program, provides a highly stimulating and comprehensive (pool, gym, motivation center, 57 acre campus) facility for our program. We presently have for the multiple handicapped one very large and two relatively small classrooms housing 11 children, 7 children, and 7 children respectively.

3. **Special Materials and Equipment**: Everything! Basically, we take every conceivable type of orthopedic equipment available and modify it for use by children who are *really* handicapped. Modified wheelchairs, relaxation chairs, tables, inclined boards, potty chairs, reflex inhibiting seats, feeding equipment, car seats, etc., etc., etc., only begin the list. Our rule of thumb is to work with each child's parents, P.T., O.T., and Orthopod to determine what the child needs, and then enlist our parent group to build it!

Summary of Strengths and Weaknesses

1. **Strengths**

a. A well coordinated, competent and creative staff that is involved in a "perpetual in-service" due primarily to the tremendous diversity among the students.

b. Intermediate and local district administrations which are very responsive to overall program needs.

c. A staff which is, in my opinion, without peer in their ability to individualize instructional programs.

d. A solid relationship with Michigan State University which provides us with everything from additional professional knowledge to a consistent supply of very good volunteers and practicum students.

e. A parent group which solidly backs comprehensive programming.

f. Twenty-five outstanding students!

2. **Weaknesses**

a. We are still less than two years old and therefore have much to learn.

b. Although our physical plant has tremendous positive aspects, there is a definite need for additional space.

c. Because we are so intensely involved with our students, we sometimes find it difficult to draw the line between what services are a legitimate part of the educational program, and what services should be provided at home or in the community at large.

d. Operating 230 days per year we still need to develop staff schedules which serve both to refresh staff members but maintain continuity of programming.

e. Repeat on item 1 – we just plain have a great deal to learn.

Evaluation Tools

Since virtually all of our students are considered "untestable," we have had to adapt for our own use whatever we could get our hands on. Most helpful to us so far have been the Balthazar Scales of Adaptive Behavior, the Denver Developmental, and the Modified Language Acquisition Program. The most helpful assessment tool of all, however, has been the use of well-written instructional objectives. With these plus good observation and data collection procedures, we are able to know where we've been, where we're going, and how we hope to get there. These same objectives give us the most accurate evaluation of our overall success or failure as a program, for as Robert Mager states in his book **Preparing Instructional Objectives,** "If you don't know where you're going, you're liable to end up someplace else and don't even know it."

ADVOCATING FOR YOUTH IN MINNEAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS: THE YOUTH ADVOCATE CORP

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One of the more prominent thrusts on the educational scene today is child advocacy or the quest for the rights of children to an education suited to their needs, abilities, and humanness. Minneapolis has moved to the forefront of this pedagogical goal with its Youth Advocate Corp which incorporates human responsiveness, flexibility, rich experimental participatory learning, and planned learning strategies. Encompassing a full range of behavior which are approached with increased personnel competence and confidence, the Youth Advocate Corp program of the Minneapolis Public Schools – Special Education Department, serves approximately 1,000 – 1,200 youngsters annually who, after institutionalization, might otherwise retreat from regular school entirely.

The Minneapolis Youth Advocate Corp program, a positive response to a very serious social problem, was designed primarily to assist the large reservoir of youngsters who are adjudicated as delinquents. Generally, these adjudicated youths are seen in a "medical model" institution, and, more recently, in community-based correctional facilities. They are usually given "treatment" which is to be followed by "after care". This "after care" falls in the realm of the Advocate even though his contacts with the youngsters begin during the institutionalized treatment period.

The program, conceptualized and written in late 1969 and early 1970 was designed to provide advocacy for and service to the vast number of emotionally disturbed/social maladjusted and/or juvenile delinquent youngsters who often had academic and personal difficulty upon returning, if they in fact did, to the regular school. Problems facing such returnees included stigma associated with incarceration in correctional institutions, difficulties in resumption of academic pursuit due to absence, lack of motivation, danger of contamination from "trouble maker" peers, possible pre-set negativism on the part of teachers, general loss or lessening of personal respect and self-confidence, continuing home difficulties, probation or parole requirements, low tolerance level and sometimes, but not always, low academic abilities.

For these youngsters, so burdened with factors which work against their best interest and performance, the Advocate role is to negotiate, promote, support, counsel, teach, listen to, and protect. One major outcome which was anticipated was that the program would serve to reduce the rate of institutional recidivism. Thus, the Advocate Program was envisioned as an avenue of service to and for the underserved or inadequately served youngsters described above.

The program was funded by the United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, the Governor's Commission on Crime Prevention, the State Department of Education Special Education Division, and the Minneapolis Public Schools Special Education Division.

The Minneapolis project is the largest of three Youth Advocate Corp Programs in the State of Minnesota, all three serving cities of the first class. The Minneapolis program consists of one Administrator, one Secretary, and 13 Advocates. The St. Paul program consists of one Coordinator Advocate and five Advocates, and Duluth has three Advocates. All three district programs are responsible individually for general management, in-service training, local evaluation, local research and the securing of continuation funds for the post federally funded period.

Funding for the project was approved as of August 31, 1971. Eleven Advocates began service to youngsters in January, 1972 after a period of intensive training and planning. Entry of the program into the school system presented several challenges. Among them were:

1. Introduction of concept of Advocacy to building staffs.

2. Locating of students to be served.

3. Setting up systems of operation, record keeping, contact making, activity logging.

4. Contacting support agencies within the school system, the court system, and the community.

5. Securing space.

6. Ordering supplies.

Students In The Program

The 13 Advocates in the Minneapolis Program who provide services to youths in all 28 junior and senior high schools serve three categories of youngsters.

1. **Returnees** – (Primary responsibility)

   a. Junior and senior high school youth aged 13-19 who return to the public schools from state correctional institutions such as Glen Lake and Lino Lakes, St. Joseph's Childrens Home, Home of the Good Shepherd, Hennepin County Juvenile Detention Center.

   b. Junior and senior high school youth age 13-19 who are returned from community-based correctional facilities such as group homes, juvenile detention center; who are on probation or parole.

2. **Institutionalized Youngsters** –

   Youth ages 13-19 who are residing at one of the state correctional schools and who will be returning to the Minneapolis Public Schools.

3. **Pre-Delinquents** –

   Youngsters with a special need for personal or academic assistance who are referred individually as a preventive measure by various school staff persons or by the youth himself.

Typical Behavior Patterns of Advocate Served Youth

The behavior patterns of youth served by Advocates is typical of that behavior generally attributed, in special education, to the emotionally disturbed and/or socially maladjusted students. Included are:

– Difficulty in establishing a sound relationship at home, school, or in the community.
– Difficulty or unwillingness to accept responsibility for hiw own behavior.
– Slow learner or behavior caused impairment of average or above-average ability.
– Excessive aggression or excessive passivity.
– Frequent truancy or running away.

- Involvement in car thefts, break-ins, petty thievery at home, school, or community.
- Use of drugs (any form).
- Exhibition of continuous and intense hostile tendencies, continuous authority-flaunting behavior.
- Skillful manipulation of adults.
- Frequent involvement with police for infractions such as:
    - throwing bricks and rocks
    - damaging property
    - fighting
    - stealing money or items of $5.00 or more.
- Display of little or excessive interest in the opposite sex.
- Retiring or withdrawn behaviors.
- Perception of self as needing guidance services (self-referral).
- Seemingly lacking in motivation.
- Disruptive.
- Low anxiety in response to social and physical threats (often willing to take extreme social or physical risks).

Major Goals

Major goals for students in the Advocate Program are to:

1. develop the capacity to form positive relationships.

2. reduce personal and academic stress.

3. develop and increase positive self-worth feelings.

4. assist students in knowing of rights for education, attendance, and work-study assistance.

5. accept personal responsibilities.

Program Goals

The general program goals are:

1. To provide services which will facilitate the re-entry adjustment of youngsters returning to regular public schools from correctional institutions.

2. To provide services which will foster continuation of educational progress begun once the youth is re-entered comfortably.

3. To guarantee more returnee youngsters the opportunity to complete high school.

4. To reduce the number of youngsters who are re-adjudicated to correctional institutions.

5. To serve as a school system change agent by reason of the better services for and greater goal satisfaction of returnee youngsters.

6. To serve as a community change agent by fostering the reduction of juvenile delinquency acts.

7. To train and maintain a cadre of experienced individuals who are available to serve returnee, institutional and pre-delinquent youngsters.

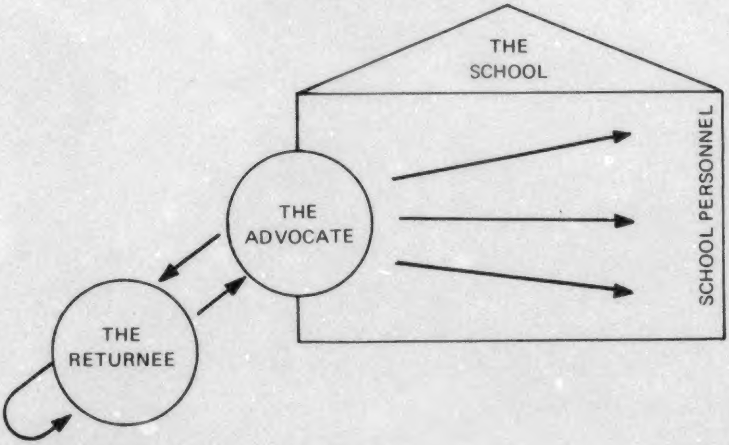
8. To add to the body of knowledge of how to serve youths of differing and difficult behavior patterns, in a manner which will help them become reasonably self-satisfied and self-sufficient functioning individuals.

The Role Of The Advocate

The Advocate is a certified teacher or social worker. He is a proponent; one who promotes, supports, counsels, encourages, teaches. He stands figuratively, half in and half out of the school as depicted in Figure I.

Figure I

SETTING OF THE ADVOCATE

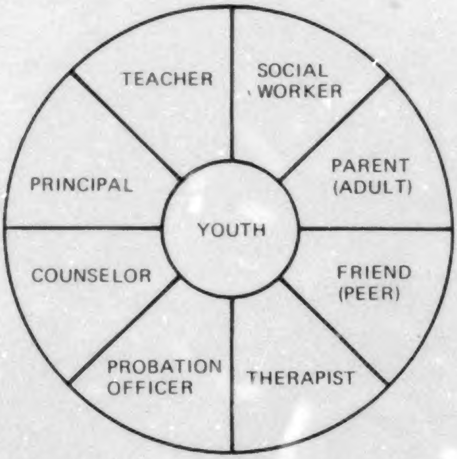


The Advocate first contacts an institutionalized youngster while he is residing and receiving treatment in a correctional facility. When the youth is released, he returns to the school to interact with public school personnel with the continued support of the Advocate.

Operationally, the Advocate's duties overlap those of many other school personnel. He is part teacher, social worker, parent, peer, therapist, probation officer, counselor, principal as depicted in Figure II. Thus, he must be a **diplomat** as well as a **doer** in order to maintain the delicate balance of service to youngsters in the context of the working environments of other professionals.

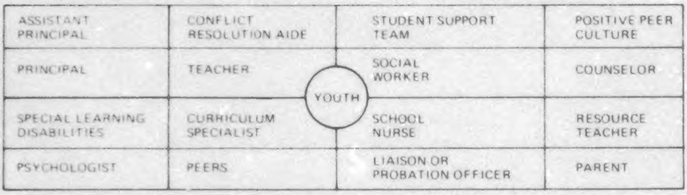
Figure II

THE ADVOCATE



The school setting in which the Advocate is based encompasses many other support personnel of more clearly defined disciplines and responsibilities as depicted in Figure III.

Figure III
OTHER SUPPORT PERSONNEL IN THE SCHOOL BUILDING



ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL	CONFLICT RESOLUTION AIDE	STUDENT SUPPORT TEAM	POSITIVE PEER CULTURE
PRINCIPAL	TEACHER	SOCIAL WORKER	COUNSELOR
SPECIAL LEARNING DISABILITIES	CURRICULUM SPECIALIST	SCHOOL NURSE	RESOURCE TEACHER
PSYCHOLOGIST	PEERS	LIAISON OR PROBATION OFFICER	PARENT

By overlapping Figure II with Figure III one can envision the vast amount of skill in interpersonal relations at the level of staff interaction which is required to perform effectively in one's role as an Advocate. The "difficulty" is one comparable to that of fitting a circular object perfectly into a square object. Nonetheless, the uniqueness of the needs of the students served combined with the keen perception and adept use of effective techniques makes for successful service in spite of overlapping into various disciplines at varying degrees. Obviously, there are failures.

Advocate Services

The services of the Advocate fall into eight major categories. These are:

1. EDUCATIONAL

- Tutorial help in deficient areas.
- Assistance in negotiating class schedule.
- Education related job placement.
- Field trips – specific to youngsters' needs or interest.
- Development of basic study skills.
- Help youngsters become comfortable with his teachers.
- Help youngster use school facilities (library, gym, lounge) wisely.
- Acquaint youngster with crisis room.
- Acquaint youngster with other support personnel.

2. INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP COUNSELING

- Listening.
- Help youngster feel better about himself (self-concept). The **feeling** level as well as the **doing** level.
- Help youngster become aware of choices.
- Help youngster assume responsibility for his actions.
- Foster ability to select "helpful" friends.
- Give youngster practice in give-and-take exchange.
- Encourage youngster to have respect for rights of his friends.
- Help youngster participate with a group.
- Help youngster feel better about his school.

3. HOME-SCHOOL COOPERATION

- Assist parents in child management – Once a solid rapport is built the Advocate shares areas of concern without being threatening.
- Accompany parents to visit teacher after Advocate has laid groundwork.
- Acquaint parents with other support personnel.

4. SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COOPERATION

- Familiarize self with community resources which might be useful.
- Maintain contact with Probation Officers, Detached Worker, Group Home Parents.
- Maintain contact with local businesses for employment assistance.
- Maintain contact with family counseling and other external therapuetic resources.

5. EMERGENCY ASSISTANCE

- Be knowledgeable of suicide prevention resources.
- Provide medical assistance – when necessary and appropriate – pregnancy problems; veneral disease concerns; provide money or tokens to get to facilities – provide transportation.

6. HEALTH AND CLEANLINESS

- Drug abuse awareness – drug information.
- Sex education.
- Grooming assistance.
- Provide dental, optical, auditory information – help in setting up routine visual and auditory examinations.

7. RECREATION AND LEISURE TIME – Crucial Area

- Help youngsters develop a hobby for constructive use of free time.
- Help youngsters participate in team sports (give/take experiences).
- Escort youngster to sports or recreational events (enjoyment – fun).
- Acquaint youngster with neighborhood recreational facilities and the personnel.

8. FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

- Direct – when possible and feasible – gifts, loans, job placements.
- Indirect – when possible and feasible – barter (swap), or second hand shop awareness.

The Advocate's Work Week

The Advocate generally works for more than the 40 hours a week for which he is paid. In many cases he is on call all day and all night – always available to help a student in need. Generally, though, he spends a 40-hour-week as follows:

– Direct contacts with students (Scheduled regular appointments at varying academic hours)	15 Hours
– Collateral contacts – attending meetings, consulting with parole and probation officers, social workers, keeping records, etc.	9 Hours
– Alternative school service/visit	3 Hours
– Visits to correctional institutions – Example: Every other Wednesday a.m. at Glen Lake Every other Tuesday p.m. at Lino Lakes	8 Hours
– Open for student drop in (Often the last hour of the day)	5 Hours
	40 Hours

The Advocate's School Day

The typical "school" day of the Advocate is spent as follows:

8:00– 9:00	Check on attendance; usher youngsters to class; schedule appointments with 2 or 3 students. (Early morning group session reinforces a youth's attendance and participation as he sees others, like himself, who are concerned about getting to school and doing school tasks.)
9:00– 9:30	Call to parent or probation officer about students as the situation warrants.
9:30–10:00	Appointment with individual student for academic-related assistance and guidance and/or guidance for personal adjustment support.
10:00–10:30	In-classroom assistance to students in cooperation with classroom teacher.
10:30–11:00	Recording logs, updating caseload records.
11:00–12:00	Meeting with student support team. Case staffing on Advocate's student, or general involvement with total school support efforts.
12:00– 1:00	Lunch – Rap with students in lunchroom, halls, back of school. Impromptu assistance to individuals in need as assistance arises.
1:00– 2:00	Conference with another Advocate relative to the transfer of a student or the development of a student's educational plan.
2:00– 2:30	Scheduled appointment with an individual student.
2:30– 3:00	Home or community visit as needed.
3:00– 3:45	In the halls – talk with students; impromptu conferences with principal, a student's teacher, social worker, school clerk, engineer or friends of the Advocate's students.
6:00–	Recreational or entertainment activities with groups of students.

Problems Encountered

Some problems the Advocates have encountered are:

1. Difficulty in terminating cases.

2. "Seeing" more of a problem than there really was.

3. Trying to solve problems for which the Advocate has inadequate skills, such as intensive family counseling.

4. Excessive experimentation with personal philosophies.

5. Resorting to excessively confrontative-abrasive attempts to change the system.

6. An overzealous view of confidentality which excludes other legitimate personnel in the school.

7. Potential misuse (as disciplinarians) by building administrators.

8. Extensive student group decision making with the potential for impairing needed individual decisions. Where such situations have been anticipated efforts have been made to prevent their occurrence or to remedy them. In the few cases where conflict situations have completely "blown up," successful mediation attempts have been made and the incidents have been used as a learning, growing experience for all concerned.

Scope and Cost of the Program

The thirteen Advocates serve approximately 1,000-1,200 youths annually, averaging a monthly caseload of 30-33 youths. Because youngsters present such varying service needs, some of the average 30-33 youths receive much more Advocate attention than others. Youngsters of the first category of service – returnees (from institutions or community-corrections) of necessity receive the bulk of the Advocate's services.

Operating with a total budget of approximately $200,000 for financial support, including salaries, equipment, educational supplies, training consultants, transportation and communications, the annual cost per child (N=1,000 plus) averages to two hundred dollars ($200.00). This latter figure is infinitesimal when compared with the cost to society (either through correctional institutionalization, community-based corrections or welfare payments) for those youths who fail to become contributing members due to a lack of basic educational and/or life skills.

Current Status of Project

An innovative project such as the Minneapolis Youth Advocate Corps experiences many changes. The initial stages of the Youth Advocate Corp Project was burdened, of necessity, with the demands of legitimitizing itself in the system. Directly and indirectly, verbally and non-verbally, the program was confronted with such queries as:

- What is an Advocate?
- How is he different than a teacher, counselor, social worker?
- For which students is he responsible?
- Why is he in and out of the building so much?
- To whom should he report?
- What else is he supposed to do besides rap with students?
- How can he change things which haven't changed for years?
- How does he work with probation officers?
- Why does he help students get jobs when they should be in school?
- When does he turn a student loose?
- Why are students allowed to congregate in his office?

Much of the initial effort of the program was aimed toward establishing a good working relationship in the building in which each Advocate was staffed. The immediate need was for developing positive working relationships, making agency contacts, crystallizing the population to be serviced and demonstrating competency by reason of involvement with youngsters. Since the persuasive, getting-established period has passed, the need now is to transfer the positives of the relationship building period to more direct services to youth as demonstrated by increased educational gains and greater personal adjustment per individual student. Specific areas of need are:

1. Making sure the returnee youths get the full complement of the Advocate's services; service on a more extensive, more sustained basis.

2. Use of personal adjustment gain to enhance educational gains.

3. Keeping caseloads low enough to be effective.

4. Development of more in-school alternatives.

5. Continued role clarification to avoid service duplication; to avoid staff discord.

6. Improved operational procedures — record keeping, referral, retrieval.

7. Exploration of pre-trial or pre-hearing process of juvenile courts.

8. Research and evaluation of project.

9. Securing funding for next school year.

Continued support of the idealism of the concept of advocacy while ensuring concrete progress and attainment.

Concluding Statements

The Advocate Program has demonstrated its success. A recent evaluation by the Governor's Crime Commission concluded that Advocate-served youngsters made better progress in school subjects and school adjustment than did a comparable group of non-Advocate-served youngsters. These findings are noteworthy as this is one of the few reports which has shown success with delinquents as a factor of program services. More importantly, though, youth, school staffs, and parents have indicated satisfaction with the program.

According to Progress Report No. 2 of Youth Advocate Corps Program compiled by the Governor's Crime Commission, 93 percent of all youngsters released from correctional institutions returned to school. Of this figure, 41.1 percent became dropouts. This dropout rate, when compared with a previous dropout rate of 60 percent, indicates that the program is achieving success in keeping adjudicated youths in school. While such findings give strength to the assumption of project funding by the local district, several system-wide factors render the future of this program tenuous.

Currently, the Minneapolis Public School system is in the early stages of administrative decentralization and of a city-wide desegregation effort. These changes, plus a declining enrollment with the concurrent freeing of many tenured personnel, has resulted in positive gains for youngsters in the form of more supportive, more specialized services. The effect of these factors is that Advocacy is no longer seen as the domain of the Youth Advocacy Corp Program personnel alone. Time and circumstances allow more people to be involved with children at the affective level at an increasing rate. These factors plus the ending of federal funding place the Youth Advocate Corp Project in a very precarious position.

However, the documented benefits of the Youth Advocacy Corp Program in the system, the needs of the specific youngster this project serves, the demonstrated value of effective direct academic and personal adjustment support, the new cooperation which has been established with various institutional and court agencies, combined with the support from building students and staff, give support to the hope that responsibility for this program will be assumed by the local district with local funds, or that other efforts will be made within the system to continue the Advocacy concept through other support personnel currently assigned to the Special Education Division.

PERFORMANCE-BASED TRAINING FOR TEACHERS
OF
MODERATELY AND SEVERELY RETARDED (TMR) PUPILS

E. Shaw Waltz and John E. Rynders
University of Minnesota

The impact of Right to Education legislation, preceded only slightly by demands for accountability throughout the educational system, has had a marked influence on teacher training programs all over the country. Special education departments have responded to these forces with new or renewed interest in the preparation of teachers able to work with the moderately and severely handicapped and with efforts to recast their old, or frame their new, training programs in the competency mold.

At the University of Minnesota, we too are moving toward the competency, or as we prefer to term it, Performance-Based Teacher Education (PBTE) program. In this paper we will describe steps taken to define and implement a PBTE program for teachers of moderately and severely retarded pupils, beginning with a description of a needs assessment survey we undertook to identify important competency areas, and then showing how results of that needs assessment changed our program.

Performance-Based Teacher Education is focused on behaviorally stated performance objectives. Teacher trainers often involve field professionals in the selection of training objectives and explore new possibilities with them for cooperative contributions to the training of future teachers. Students spend more of their training time in the field and are given clearly stated program exit requirements and some choices of the exercises and experiences through which they can achieve exit goals. Thus, the training emphasis shifts to the TMR classroom where pre-service teacher trainees can apply and test their course work learning with supervision from cooperative teachers and their practicum supervisor. This shift from the typical emphasis on accumulation of course credits to a focus on performance in field settings and to the involvement of field professionals and students in program planning, requires a shift in training roles and in program implementation. Old modes of relating to students and to colleagues in the field change under the new training model, and the program components themselves take on different form and emphasis.

Desirable though these basic performance-based concepts are, the literature surrounding efforts to embrace these concepts leads to bewilderment if not downright despair.

While there are any number of studies indicating that one or another training technique fosters the acquisition of student teacher competencies, there are virtually no studies producing firm evidence that the competencies being stressed make any real difference in the classroom. We are, unfortunately, far from certain which teaching behaviors actually produce the pupil progress which is our ultimate concern (Howell, 1971; McKenna, 1971; Rosenshine and McGaw, 1972; Shores, Cegelka and Nelson, 1973). Furthermore, we can neither be certain that "experts" in the field know exactly which competencies contribute to pupil progress (Oscarson, 1971), nor that teachers themselves can precisely pinpoint essential teaching competencies (Jones, 1972).

The move to the competency model and to objective evaluation of teacher behavior has provoked an outburst of eloquent and thought-provoking criticism (Hash, 1970; Doll, 1971; Combs, 1972). Even our conviction that writing behavioral objectives makes **us** objective is called into question by Stake (1971) who cautions us to search for the subjective judgments underlying our objective behavioral statements, a caution which gains credence as we attempt to rate actual teaching behavior. Furthermore, when we set about evaluating competency in the classroom, our measurement tools "can only be described as dismal" (MacDonald, 1972). Beyond that we are called to task for trying to measure (however dismally) the wrong things, i.e., attainment of performance but not the **value** of attaining it (Popham, 1971).

Meanwhile, behind the stirring calls for cooperative teacher training efforts and consortia, a potentially nasty struggle for power lurks. For there is no doubt that the power, the real clout, in education will belong to the group that defines and evaluates teacher competencies. The literature clearly reveals the determination of all groups in education to have a piece of that action and of some groups to corner the action if they can (Bain, 1970; Darland, 1971).

Add to these difficulties what we might call institutional drag; even an institution committed to change has within it a lot of built-in resistance to the very changes it seeks to initiate. In the training setting, old program course requirements, for instance, are fiercely defended (courses have **numbers**; they have been **cleared**; the State Department has the **list**). The prospect of replacing traditional classroom coursework with self-instructional modules or of allowing students to test out of courses raises knotty financial problems. What are the students to pay and what are they paying it **for** under the new educational model? And if instructional service is measured within the training institution in terms of student contact hours, faculty may be understandably reluctant to carve from those contact hours the formidable amounts of time it takes to engineer alternate study options for their students. It is a small wonder that we need to be warned against the temptation to simply translate old course requirements into the new behavioral jargon (Nash & Agnew, 1971).

Field personnel involved in cooperative efforts with teacher training institutions should be aware of these problems and will understand why we are going to heed the words of three authors in a recent article and prudently avoid the glib use of the term, "competency-based" lest, as they caution, we get caught with our "competencies down" (Shores, Cegelka & Nelson, 1973). Hence, we have moved with commitment, tempered with caution, in the development of our PBTE program.

*A Needs Assessment Survey**

There are, of course, many ways to develop objectives for a training program. One way is to have one or several "experts" sit down and conjure up the objectives. This approach is fraught with the risks inherent in "armchair quarterbacking." At the other extreme, one could attempt detailed observations of what one or more truly competent teachers actually do, assuming that this will reveal the knowledge and skills necessary for effective classroom teaching. This approach, a naturalistic one, can be very useful in obtaining highly detailed descriptions of behavior but it is not very useful for obtaining the **general** objectives desired in early stages of a program's development. Eventually, of course, a truly comprehensive approach to developing objectives would combine the judgements of experts and observation of competent teachers in deriving behavioral training objectives.

In developing our initial training program objectives, we chose to use a survey research instrument to identify general competencies necessary for effective teaching of TMR pupils. This approach allowed us to solicit the reactions of a large number of aides, teachers and supervisors from varied educational settings across the entire state to a list of objectives.

A large pool of objectives for all competency areas was first derived

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from an extensive review of the literature and from several aides, teachers and supervisors whose help we enlisted in the project. These objectives were stated on a general level. This initial pool was reduced to manageable proportions by a task force composed of field personnel and of our faculty and graduate students in the teacher training program.

Two broad competency areas emerged, each containing about 25 general objectives. The first area or domain we called "Foundations," since it contained items concerned with definition, classification, and characteristics of TMR persons as well as items dealing with the history and evolving philosophical attitudes toward the care and training of handicapped individuals. The second domain contained items concerned with contingency management, use of instructional materials, and assessment of pupil achievement, i.e., those practical skills generally referred to as "Methods and Materials."

The final instrument contained 56 objectives as well as an option for respondents to add other objectives if they wished. These were placed in five pre-randomized orders and then administered in person to about 450 educational personnel (supervisors, teachers and aides) in public school and day activity center (DAC) programs serving TMR persons in the state of Minnesota. Two master sets of the same set of questions were administered to each respondent. The first asked personnel to rate objectives with respect to their **importance** in teaching TMR persons. The second asked each respondent to rate the objectives again, this time according to their **personal needs for inservice** training. The first set helps us identify potential competency emphases in our pre-service training program; the second gives us helpful information for designing in-service training.

Importance of Objectives

Analysis of the data began with evaluating the importance of each objective. The question was, "If one looks at the objectives which fall in the top ten ratings of experienced supervisors, teachers and aides in both public school and DAC settings, are there any objectives which all of those groups would agree are highly necessary for competent teaching?" Three objectives appeared in the top ten ratings of each of the three groups (supervisors, teachers and aides) in both settings (DAC's and public schools). These were objectives number:

> (4) Through his teaching, the teacher shows that he possesses personal characteristics which are essential for instructing children such as: firmness with affection, enthusiasm, and sensitivity to the student's need for discipline.

(35) Given an opportunity to write a curriculum unit, the teacher skillfully designs experiences for teaching moderately and severely retarded persons in self-help skills such as dressing, grooming, eating, toileting, etc.

(43) Given a class of exceptional students, the teacher can demonstrate the ability to:
   a. establish and maintain pupil attention
   b. present concepts unambiguously
   c. reinforce and/or correct pupil responses.

Next we separated responses of the three groups according to whether they functioned within a public school or DAC setting. While the three objectives above remained, naturally, common to top ten ratings in either setting, further areas of agreement within (or differences between) settings emerged.

Two further objectives appeared within the top ten ratings of supervisors, teachers and aides in the public school setting:

(24) The teacher demonstrates skill in developing informal procedures for measuring specific achievement in behaviors such as eating, dressing, and other self-care skills.

(27) The teacher skillfully prepares individualized curriculum units in number concepts (including functional concepts such as time, money, and measurement) which are appropriate to the developmental level of the moderately and severely retarded person.

While these two objectives did not appear consistently in the top ten ratings of the three groups (supervisors, teachers and aides) in the DAC settings, DAC personnel did show agreement on three other objectives:

(33) The teacher demonstrates skill in instructing a TMR child in communication skills of self-identification, including instruction in writing name, address, and telephone number, and in skillfully using the telephone.

(42) The teacher writes beneficial behavioral objectives for moderately and severely retarded persons which can be used by parents in the home.

(44) The teacher can skillfully teach moderately and severely retarded persons using a variety of instructional strategies

such as behavior modification and modeling techniques.

It appears from the above outcomes that supervisors, teachers and aides in both public school and DAC settings attach high importance to those objectives which fall generally within the "Methods and Materials" domain. The most highly rated objective across all categories and all groups was number 4 which we had predicted would consistently rate very highly because it epitomizes for us the conventionally held ideal of the competent teacher.

Now let us take a look at the ratings of just one of these groups – teachers. Whether they were working in a public school or DAC setting, experienced teachers consistently ranked seven objectives most highly:

(4) Through his teaching, the teacher shows that he possesses personal characteristics which are essential for instructing such as: firmness with affection, enthusiasm, and sensitivity to the child's need for discipline.

(35) Given an opportunity to write a curriculum unit, the teacher skillfully designs experiences for teaching moderately and severely retarded persons in self-help skills such as dressing, grooming, eating, toileting, etc.

(43) Given a class of exceptional students, the teacher can demonstrate the ability to:
  a. establish and maintain pupil attention
  b. present concepts unambiguously
  c. reinforce and/or correct pupil responses.

(42) The teacher writes beneficial behavioral objectives for moderately and severely retarded persons which can be used by parents in the home.

(44) The teacher can skillfully teach moderately and severely retarded persons using a variety of instructional strategies such as behavior modification and modeling techniques.

(32) The teacher can plan and implement a functional motor development program (e.g., adaptive physical education) for moderately and severely retarded persons.

(33) The teacher demonstrates skill in instructing moderately and severely retarded persons in communication skills of self-identification, including instruction in writing name,

address, and telephone number, and in skillfully using the telephone.

Analysis of these teacher ratings revealed a 70 percent concordance between the two groups in the top ten objectives indicating that experienced teachers in public school or DAC settings ascribe high importance to similar training areas. Training program objectives receiving the highest ratings by both groups of teachers were those areas having to do with pupil assessment, use of instructional materials, and application of varied instructional strategies. All of these areas fall within the "Methods and Materials" domain.

Experienced teachers in public school settings differed from DAC teachers in three of their top ten ratings.

(24) The teacher demonstrates skill in developing informal procedures for measuring specific achievement in behaviors such as eating, dressing, and other self-care skills.

(26) Given examples of moderately and severely retarded persons with specific motor, cognitive, communication, vocational and social deficits, the teacher skillfully plans specific remedial techniques for ameliorating each of the deficits.

(27) The teacher skillfully prepares individualized curriculum units in number concepts (including functional concepts such as time, money, and measurement) which are appropriate to the developmental level of the moderately and severely retarded persons.

Experienced teachers in DAC settings differed from public school teachers in three of their top ten:

(56) The teacher can defend program goals he has written for students in a day activity center or a public school classroom for moderately and severely retarded persons using the educational and research literature and his own experience.

(54) The teacher can write progress reports required by school and state agencies that are convincing, concise, and comprehensive.

(11) The teacher assists parents in dealing with inappropriate behavior of moderately and severely retarded persons by

writing several alternative plans to deal with each inappropriate behavior.

One of the interesting differences in the top ten ratings of teachers in the two settings is in objective numbers 54 and 56. While DAC teachers ranked these among their top ten in importance, they rank 22nd and 19th respectively in importance for public school teachers. We speculate that this discrepancy may reflect a difference in funding criteria and procedures between the two educational agencies.

Self-Perceived Needs for Continued Training

Looking now at the ratings of the same objectives according to self-perceived need for inservice training across experiences and inexperienced supervisors, teachers and aides in both public schools and DAC's, we find no accord across all groups. Nor within the public school setting did any objectives appear consistently in the top ten ratings of supervisors, teachers and aides in public schools.

Within DAC settings, however, the three groups did agree on rating within their top ten the need for further training in four objective areas:

(4) Through his teaching, the teacher shows that he possesses personal characteristics which are essential for instructing students such as: firmness with affection, enthusiasm, and sensitivity to the child's need for discipline.

(44) The teacher can skillfully teach moderately and severely retarded persons using a variety of instructional strategies such as behavior modification and modeling techniques.

(32) The teacher can plan and implement a functional motor development program (e.g., adaptive physical education) for moderately and severely retarded persons.

(35) Given an opportunity to write a curriculum unit, the teacher skillfully designs experiences for teaching moderately and severely retarded persons in self-help skills such as dressing, grooming, eating, toileting, etc.

Turning again to a more intensive look at the ratings of teachers only (we included both experienced and inexperienced teachers since our continuing education efforts would include both categories), we found considerable accord among teachers regardless of their experience or setting. Six objectives were consistently ranked by both DAC and public school teachers within the top ten in terms of perceived need for further training:

(32) The teacher can plan and implement a functional motor development program (e.g., adaptive physical education) for moderately and severely retarded persons.

(35) Given an opportunity to write a curriculum unit, the teacher skillfully designs experiences for teaching moderately and severely retarded persons in self-help skills such as dressing, grooming, eating, toileting, etc.

(24) The teacher demonstrates skill in developing informal procedures for measuring specific achievement in behaviors such as eating, dressing, and other self-care skills.

(11) The teacher assists parents in dealing with inappropriate behavior of moderately and severely retarded persons by writing several alternative plans to deal with each inappropriate behavior.

(26) Given examples of moderately and severely retarded persons with specific motor, cognitive, communication, vocational and social deficits, the teacher skillfully plans specific remedial techniques for ameliorating each of the deficits.

(33) The teacher demonstrates skill in instructing moderately and severely retarded persons in communication skills of self-identification, including instruction in writing name, address, and telephone number, and in skillfully using the telephone.

Differences between public school and DAC teachers were found on a number of objectives. Among public school teachers the remaining four high ranked objectives were:

(23) The teacher skillfully selects and administers both formal and informal evaluation instruments in the areas of motor, communication, academic, social, vocational, and cognitive developments; and uses the results in writing lesson plans, and educational prescriptions for moderately and severely retarded persons.

(42) The teacher writes beneficial behavioral objectives for moderately and severely retarded persons which can be

used by parents in the home.

(27) The teacher skillfully prepares individualized curriculum units in number concepts (including functional concepts such as time, money, and measurement) which are appropriate to the developmental level of moderately and severely retarded persons.

(38) The teacher can skillfully develop and produce several appropriate audio-visual materials such as transparencies, games, manipulable objects, and audio-tapes for moderately and severely retarded persons.

Among DAC teachers the four other high rated objectives were:

(4) Through his teaching, the teacher shows he possesses personal characteristics which are essential for instructing such as: firmness with affection, enthusiasm, and sensitivity to the child's need for discipline.

(44) The teacher can skillfully teach moderately and severely retarded persons using a variety of instructional strategies such as behavior modification and modeling techniques.

(43) Given a class of exceptional children, the teacher can demonstrate the ability to:
   a. establish and maintain student attention
   b. present concepts unambiguously
   c. reinforce and/or correct student responses.

(15) The teacher can identify environmental events and conditions that promote and maintain maladaptive behavior and describe appropriate teaching strategies with which to cope with these maladaptive behaviors.

Again, the top rated objectives for both public school and DAC teachers, in almost all cases, fall within the "Methods and Materials" domain.

Summing up this section, our teacher respondents regardless of setting attach highest ratings, both in terms of importance and in personal felt-need for inservice training, to objectives concerning teaching methods and materials. Thus, while we are still not finished with analyses of needs assessment data, it has been clear from the earliest stages of analysis that our training program should increase the emphasis devoted to this area of high importance and interest.

Impact of Needs Assessment Results on Our Training Program

Since the most highly rated objectives clustered in the "Methods and Materials" domain, the methods and materials course and the practicum experiences of our pre-training program became the focus of our initial efforts to respond to needs assessment results. In the spring of 1973, we made several changes in the methods and materials course:

A pre-test of knowledge was given which, if passed at 85 percent or better, allowed a student to choose from several study options so that his knowledge might be advanced beyond the course objectives and so that he could receive credit, and growth, from the course without sitting through parts of it which he had already mastered. In some cases, students and the instructor contracted for a special study option which completely substituted for course meetings and requirements.

Course objectives were shared with the students at several class sessions and student evaluations of the fit between the stated objectives and the class content were analyzed and some changes were made. For example, the amount of course time devoted to behaviorally stated objective-setting, recording and analyzing behavior change, and contingency management was expanded. And, students moved into the field for four micro-teaching sessions at Emerson School, one of our practicum sites.

At the end of the term we collected student evaluations of the course as a whole, ratings of each of its component parts, and of the relevance of course assignments to achievement of course objectives. Thus we gathered a fair sheaf of process evaluations in addition to the usual final exam "product" evaluation. The final exam represented an earnest effort to provide a formative as well as a summative experience for the students, that is we tried to make the exam itself a further learning experience as well as an examination of knowledge mastery (most students in their final evaluations rated this effort a success).

Since most of the students involved in their final student teaching practicum were concurrently enrolled in the methods and materials course, the practicum performances that we evaluated naturally included those goals articulated in our methods and materials course objectives.

At the end of the quarter, we sifted through our pile of evaluation material and found that:

While the final exam and our own observations of students in the field gave us heartening evidence that we were moving in the right direction, we had encountered problems which the student ratings only confirmed. Evaluation of the course as a whole was surprisingly positive in view of the almost unanimous judgment that two or more quarters should have been devoted to what the students felt was a staggering amount of work.

The portion of the class devoted to behavior counting, recording and evaluation had bogged down in time-consuming detail on standard behavior charting and there was criticism that a disproportionate amount of the course had been devoted to this one method of graphing.

The logistics of moving the entire class to a public school setting for four brief micro-teaching sessions had proven hectic: transportation, space and time problems had combined to give the students and faculty a chronic feeling of narrowly averted chaos during this portion of the course.

Despite these frustrations, the experience was rated highly and the students criticized only the amount of time devoted to this course component. They wanted *more* of this opportunity to apply what they were learning.

As a result of student and faculty evaluations of our spring experience some changes were made in the summer methods and materials course. We adjusted the time devoted to various course components, changed some of the assignments, and experimented with different student-evaluation procedures. And we began planning for the 1973-74 academic year.

Some Practical Problems in Moving Toward a Performance-Based Program

Before we go on to describe the program during the current academic year, a few, somewhat rueful, observations of our practical experiences might be of interest.

To begin with, there is the problem of selecting the excellent cooperating teachers with whom we want our student teachers placed. There is a built-in public relations problem in the selection of cooperating teachers. For instance, we are hardly going to spread good will and further a spirit of cooperation between community settings and ourselves if we poke into each classroom of a practicum site and tell the principal which of his teachers we want our students to work with (or **not** to work with). Nor can we trustingly ask the principal to assign us only his best teachers. (Most principals have to believe, at least publicly, that all their teachers are the best. Perhaps this is true, for we must admit we have been very fortunate in seeing our students placed with good teachers, despite our nightmare visions of other possibilities).

When our student teachers are in their final student teaching practicum it is the practicum supervisor's task to evaluate achievement of those exit performances articulated in the program goals. This is not always altogether possible. For instance, we cannot see how our student will actually arrange the environmental conditions and contingencies (the working space, the schedule, the materials); these have already been arranged by the cooperating teacher. And while it's all very well to say that we want to see our students setting goals, both group and individual, reality is that student teaching usually comes in the spring when much of the goal setting in the classroom has already been established.

Shape of the Revised Program

Evaluation of last year's experience indicated clearly that our students should be on special assignments in the field throughout their training program. Hence the three quarters during the academic year 1973-74 are divided into what we've come to call the "modeling," "dabbling," and "plunging" phases of the program.

During the Fall Quarter, the student spends two mornings a week in classrooms at one of three practicum sites: E.D.G.E.*, an experimental preschool program for Down's Syndrome (monogoloid) children; Emerson School, a major program for elementary trainable mentally retarded pupils in Minneapolis; or the Cooperative School Rehabilitation Center, a multi-district vocationally-oriented school for severely handicapped adolescent youngsters. These experiences have been as varied as the classrooms themselves, but in each case durinng the Fall Quarter our students have been observing how experienced teachers manage the instruction of handicapped pupils. At our weekly seminar, they report how their cooperating teachers deal with entry level assessment, goal setting, progress recording, behavior management and the arrangement of time, space and materials to maximize learning.

**E.D.G.E. (Expanding Developmental Growth through Education) is an early education project funded through a federal grant from the U.S. Office of Education, Bureau for Education of the Handicapped to the University of Minnesota Research, Development and Demonstration Center. Grant No. OE-09-332189-4533 (032).*

This year we have added a component introducing research and practice in observing and recording classroom interactions. We want our students to be familiar with some of the current observation techniques and expect that this will encourage their use of self-observation and stimulate conscious efforts to analyze and change their own teaching behaviors.

During Winter Quarter, rotating to a new site and a new set of classrooms, students continue to observe experienced teachers but they also have micro-teaching assignments in designing, implementing and evaluating small group and one-to-one instruction. Their assignments in the field give them practice in applying the principles they're learning in the methods and materials course, and they continue to share their experiences during the weekly seminar. Extensive self-study of instructional materials is part of the methods and materials course and this year, due to new cooperative planning between our department and the St. Paul Schools' Special Educational Instructional Materials Center, students spend a considerable part of their course time in the field exploring materials at this beautifully equipped facility.

In Spring Quarter, as they enter their final student teaching practicum, students have worked with a variety of severely retarded pupils of different age and ability levels, been exposed to several teacher styles and a variety of methods and materials, and have gained some confidence in their own teaching abilities through their micro-teaching experiences. Furthermore, two quarters of working and learning together during their weekly seminars have established a level of trust and comfort in the group which provides a trampoline of group support for each individual during this final phase of training when the student is prepared to take on full responsibility with the help of a teacher in the field and our own faculty supervisor.

A Question of Program Design: Student Involvement

One of the questions which designers of performance-based instruction and evaluation must face is the extent to which students should participate in the program design (Dolinsky, 1973). We believe that students who have experienced a program responsive to their needs, their individual learning preferences, and their advancing ability to take responsibility for the direction and management of their own training, will, in turn, be more responsive to the individual needs and learning preferences of their own pupils and more sensitive to those advances in self-direction which all teachers seek to foster in their pupils. An implicit assumption of the program is that performance-based training requires the active involvement of students in defining, managing and evaluating training requirements.

Of the components of program design to which students might theoretically contribute (selection of training goals, selection of training process, and evaluation of trainees), we have been most responsive to their constructive criticism and suggestions about **process**, i.e., about the ways in which we have provided experiences that can aid them to meet program exit criteria. This year, we extended involvement of students in program design by encouraging them to contribute ideas to the ways in which we will be evaluating their teaching performance. For instance, in seminar we discuss ways in which teaching behavior and classroom interaction can be measured and analyzed, and students are given examples of those techniques currently used by the practicum supervisor in observing student teaching.

While we are involving our students in the process and evaluation parts of their program we are still, perhaps traditionally, reluctant to involve them in the selection of training program goals though we are considering ways in which this might be done.

A Look to the Future

Continually we have heard about the changes that Right to Education legislation demands of us. We have been called on to expand the ways in which we conceive of education and the ways in which we deliver and evaluate it. Embarking on these changes, we must find better ways in which different educational groups can relate to each other. Thinking about issues of change in education, we are inspired by some lines written by T.S. Eliot.

> In order to arrive at what you are not
> You must go through the way in which you are not
> And what you do not know is the only thing you know
> And where you are is where you are not*

The new ways in which we're being asked to conceive of ourselves, our clients, and our professional peers will demand that we modify and sometimes even abandon our old institutional roles – that we literally "go through the way in which we are not" to arrive at what we are not.

We've described changes in our training program and some of the problems encountered as we sought to change it. We've indicated

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**Four Quartets, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1943, p. 15.*

that, as must be true of other segments of the educational establishment, we find ourselves in the **process** of change. Our program is not what it was but, as we explore new ways of looking at our goals and at our relationships with our students and our professional peers, we see our training as **becoming** different in ways which we and our students find substantial and satisfying. It seems certain that teacher training programs will increasingly be a cooperative venture, one in which students are more involved with shaping their training and in which field professionals are far more closely involved with training institutions than they have been.

The impact of Right to Education legislation has expanded our conceptualization of special education itself. The new ways in which performance-based models of training force us all to look at our own performances as we teach and work together can offer to each of us, as well as our students and staffs, new opportunities for professional growth.

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part V
reaction to papers

A MOSQUITO IN A NUDIST COLONY: REACTION TO PAPERS

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From a general point of view I have little envy for people agreeing to summarize or react to even limited conferences or texts. From a personal point of view, compressing the tremendous array of concepts and information presented in this volume is virtually impossible. I feel somewhat like the mosquito in the nudist colony. I know what I'm supposed to do but have difficulty deciding where to start. My major problem does appear to be one of discrimination. Functionally, it's the requirement to differentiate between integrated conciseness and fragmented simplicity.

Departing from the sequence of the text, I would like to give joint reaction to the contributions of Dr. Mattheis and Dr. Blatt. I perceive a common referent for Dr. Matheis' discussion of responsibility and responsiveness and Dr. Blatt's compelling interest and priority for the basic rights of individuals. The common referent seems to be that we are, in this accountability oriented era, responsible for much more than assuring that the handicapped have **entry to** programs and services. That entry should be based on recognition of the human dignity of the individual who has always had the basic right to be included in not only the services of society but society itself. We must be held accountable for not only "services" and entry to them but for the relationship between entry to those services and the more basic problems of entry to society.

This I believe touches on a major problem inherent in implementation of service programs for those individuals identified as having special needs or as deviant from the more general societal imperatives. It seems that many services are primarily administrative contrivances which accent and sustain real or apparent characteristics of differences. Many of them tend to treat the more specific academic or behavioral deficits within a system which has limited relationship to the more normalized environments in which the individuals must function. This is a general educational problem. Does it make sense to require a hall pass to go to the washroom for students who can vote for President of the United States?

The focus of this volume, **The Right to an Education Mandate: Implications for Special Education Leadership Personnel** encompasses far more than alternative administrative models. Its perspective has included far more than presentation of data specific to appropriations and population "body counts" regarding who is excluded or included in programs. Though these data are essential, they are only symptomatic. They do not speak to the need for programs which integrate services and society nor do they speak in a specific sense to the quality of the services provided.

I am greatly encouraged by the general data regarding increased enrollments in programs. I am also aware that such data provides no more an index of positive function and effect than the negative index of "body counts" represented by the horrendous human costs of the Vietnam War. Data documenting groups excluded from services does not even implicitly define the problems of those individuals placed in programs or institutions which exaggerate differences and penalize rather than normalize.

I'm reminded of a recent discussion with Bill Wright, a colleague at the University of Kentucky. We were discussing a possible article regarding the relationship of training programs to field delivery systems. I proposed we title the article as a question, "When does Giving become Stealing?" The point was that a lot of confusion or downright fraud exists in most graduate preparation programs. Those people called faculty frequently "con" those people temporarily called students. Let me illustrate. Faculty expect students to feel obligated when they "give" them a fellowship. In fact some faculty expect this obligation to continue even after the student becomes a colleague. The symptoms of this are particularly acute when consultants are to be hired or additional research or articles are to be generated. The ex-students are then reminded of their obligation to remember back when I did "that" for you.

The truth of the matter is that what the faculty allegedly "gave" was never theirs in the first place. Not only was it never theirs and cost them nothing but they benefited tremendously from the processing of the funds. They are able to do research and program development which furthers themselves and the departments they represent which would be impossible without the supposed "giving." This and other illustrations provided the basis for the question, "When does Giving become Stealing?"

In bridging from the academic world to areas of service and treatment programs, I feel analagous processes can be discussed. They are much more brutal since they affect individuals whose coping ability is much more restricted than graduate students. What is given when individuals are placed in institutions which de-humanize rather than normalize? What are children being given when they are placed in programs which exaggerate differences and provide little hope of positive effect? Personally, I think this invokes the stealing aspect of the relationship. We frequently steal from them the human dignity and respect we maintain they have inherently and legally. I am pleased that these considerations have received attention as an integral part of The Right to an Education. Its absence would provide a relatively sterile basis for considering the specifics of service models and systems.

Drs. Reynolds and Wolfensberger provided substantial basis for thinking through the application of such systems and models. Dr. Wolfensberger's observation was that most of our activities are based on ideology rather than emperical data is valid. Though marked progress has been documented in terms of more programs for more people, much of the decision making has been necessarily based on what might be termed the best possible guess procedure. Not only do we have data deficits in a general sense but much of the available data tells us more what "not to do" rather than "what to do," i.e., efficacy studies regarding effects of administrative programming. I enthusiastically support the notion that definite advantages will accrue from the development of systems to coordinate and direct what has previously been a rather random series of efforts to provide the data requisite for broadly intentional plans for program development. The statement that the complexities of systems organization may overwhelm us is one of reality rather than probability.

This point is well illustrated by Dr. Wolfensberger's discussion of the need for reduced defensiveness about ourselves and our history. The necessity of systematic infusion of research and decision theory in each service component and level is critical. The need for cost effectiveness does require that strategies and mechanisms for change be built into the respective program components. Accomplishment of these objectives does necessitate a systems approach with a combination of internal and external monitoring. It is at this point that many do become overwhelmed with the immensity of the problem. This is to be expected even under the best of conditions. To paraphrase Goethe, when the sum total of reality is divided by the sum total of the products of human reason there is always an "unexplainable remainder."

This relates to what I perceive to be one, and perhaps the one major product of a systems approach to problem solving. It makes available for public and mutual scrutiny many things which were previously only implied or invisible. It's a rather simplistic point but no system in itself has only intrinsic value. It serves only to order behaviors and provide for a more rational, orderly review of process functions. In itself it cannot solve problems but provides a vehicle for specifying problems and laying out specified action plans for solving them. This is why I view most common systems as very changeable, transitory vehicles. If the initial model is effective it should provide feedback for needed revisions and extensions of the system.

The macrosystem discussed by Dr. Reynolds provides a basis for scrutinizing the reciprocal relationships between training institutions, state educational agencies and local delivery units. We will do well to increase our attention to those relationships. It is obvious that what is mandated in courts in regulation of service has severe impact on who we train, how many we train and how we train. The focus on mainstreaming for the mildly handicapped and the inclusion of the severely, multiple handicapped requires major shifts in training programs.

This is true for both pre-service and in-service training functions. If the local schools are to be held accountable for the quality of programs based on demonstrated student performance, it is logical to expect the training institutions to be accountable for the effect of the preparation programs based on teacher performance. Further, since those teachers or personnel currently working the field were trained by faculty based on what is now obsolete "state of the art" information and practices do not these faculty have a responsibility for more decampused in-service training involvement? Personally, I cannot support the position that "we're too busy developing new programs, we have no responsibility for the products of the "old ones."

The alternative models for training discussed by Dr. Reynolds stimulated a good deal of thought. The sovietized; the dissemination; the local needs assessment; the voluntary collaboration; and the problem solving models all have characteristics to recommend them. My own guess is that most of us will pick and choose from the elements of all of them in a rather eclectric fashion. Again, the vital point is that we should have referents and a systematic basis for the acceptance and rejection process.

This is particularly acute in regard to implementation of mainstreaming as a process basic to programs for the handicapped. Let me touch on a few illustrative points. Specific to Departments of Special Education in training institutions, what is the basis for maintaining them as separate administrative entities when we espouse mainstreaming in the field? Is it logical to assume that "academic mainstreaming" is just as valid as field mainstreaming? Does it cost us in credibility to discuss "equal opportunity to learn" in the field when we have disparate opportunities in the colleges and universities? Witness the differential learning opportunities provided honor students as opposed to those available to the majority of students in your institutions. Does it cost us in credibility when we speak of change process to field personnel while at the same time it takes us two years to change even a course description in our own program?

Pursuing the implications for mainstreaming to field programs, I feel training personnel have similar questions to ask themselves. Teachers in regular education via collective bargaining are negotiating for the prerogative of deciding who they will accept in their classes. The probability seems great that they will reject the very students historically placed in self-contained units. What responsibilities and functions should training personnel accept for treating with this situation?

A second common question relates to the data and rationale we as special educators will provide our colleagues in regular education to justify our broadened involvements. Despite our recognized progress, what is our response to questions such as, "What is that that you have found so successful that you think that we should buy it? This is not a contrived question but one I've gotten from a good number of regular educators. In short, the perception is that we are asking them to accept responsibility for children we have not been able to effectively serve despite the support we have received at the state and federal levels.

The relational systems Maynard has discussed must be utilized selectively and strenuously if the gains of special education are to be extended. Since they have been achieved with such difficulty and cost, it would be grossly unfortunate if they were to become lost in the process of generalization. Basically, I view the generalization process as a very positive one. I accept the premise that, in both positive and negative areas, the essential determinants of what special education is and will become are in education as a general process.

The need for constant review and redefinition of "special education" reminds me of what is termed an isostatic state in geology. In a physical sense, this relates to a land mass which does not respond to ambient factors such as heat and pressure. Though internal processes may occur, it remains isolated until the external variables sufficiently increase in magnitude to cause general change. This is somewhat analogous to special education. A major shift occurred in the 1950's with the advent of "parent power" in a political sense.

We have made many internal adjustments since then. We are currently being subjected to yet another major shift of an even more general nature. This relates to the constitutional and litigative processes so evident over the past several years. The effects of this shift will be even more persuasive than the last since it involves changing education, not special education. Our prior relative isostatic state has changed markedly.

With apologies for undue editorializing, I'd like to turn to the discussions regarding more specific litigative and legislative actions and their implications for service programs. Fred Weintraub's discussion of the five basic elements of public policy setting provided some excellent referents. The degree to which any minority will be treated fairly by the majority is indeed the basic question. His comments specific to protecting the "servee" from abuse by the "server" hits me "where I live" as you may have assumed from my comments on giving and stealing. His comments on the need to provide information to parents in the "language of the home" touches another sensitive nerve. I can only hope we are more successful at that than we have been in developing a common language base among ourselves as professionals. Maybe that's been our problem. We've spent too much time contriving languages for our own purposes rather than for the people with the problems. His fifth point is the real "cruncher." The real index of society's priorities is where they are willing to commit resources. The problem of maintaining this commitment will become increasingly difficult as more of the individuals we serve become less visible as discreet populations.

Al Abeson's contribution regarding the status of illustrative litigative actions around the country provides an excellent summary. It reaffirmed the general position that children have the prerogative to say, "you can't deprive me of learning opportunity because you don't have the appropriate program; I have the right to require that you not only include me in your system but you give me entry to a program that relates to what I need. Don't just tell me what you have, find out what I need." This relates specifically to the child placement procedures outlined by Fred Weintraub.

The actions in Texas and California are particularly interesting. The more general effect of the Texas decision is greatly mediated since it does not necessarily apply to state judicial action. The decision regarding Laurie in California introduced the concept of being "incapable to learn." I would anticipate this to be a general line of defense for many agencies as it relates particularly to the severely and/or multiple handicapped. The whole issue of public school responsibility is under re-review. It doesn't require a long intuitive jump to go from concepts of inability to learn back to "we can't serve you since we don't have the appropriate program." Recalling the long discussions of a few years ago regarding the public school responsibility for the trainable mentally retarded gives us some clues as to the difficulty of generating acceptance of even more handicapped individuals.

The synoptic articles by Drs. Van Dyke, Yates, Johnson, and Chaffin helped me get back to some of the specific problems of program development. The consistent themes reinforced the need for more effective public education, in-service and technical assistance, more effective linkage between training, administrative and field service agencies, experiental training, resource and mainstreaming service vehicles, community based programs and services for the severely handicapped.

The multiplicity of problems represented by these several articles reminds me of the positions of many administrators I've talked with. They seem to feel that they have so many problems to cope with that regardless of what they do, they're going to be sued. If they do nothing, they're obviously in trouble. If they do something, it's not going to be wholly satisfactory to everyone and they're going to be sued. I'm curious as to when the local agencies as consumers of the products of the training programs will begin suing colleges and universities. If the fellow in California can sue the school for not teaching him how to read, why can't the teachers sue the university for not teaching him/her how to teach reading? I hope I'm being facetious but sometimes I wonder.

I won't even attempt to summarize the contributions related to the various service and demonstration programs. I can only react by saying that I'm tremendously impressed with the expertise and dedication of the participating staff and faculty. One of the reasons my participation in these leadership conferences and in reacting to this volume has been so profitable is the fact that the majority of attendees represent direct, on-going service programs. The formal and informal interactions I've enjoyed have given me a range of perceptions which really turn me on. For the buck really stops with the practitioner. There's a vast difference between statements of responsibility and accepting that responsibility on a day-to-day basis. The existence of service programs such as are described in this volume is tremendously encouraging. It's good to be reminded that in spite of all our problems, individuals are being served — and served well.

1973
conference staff

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